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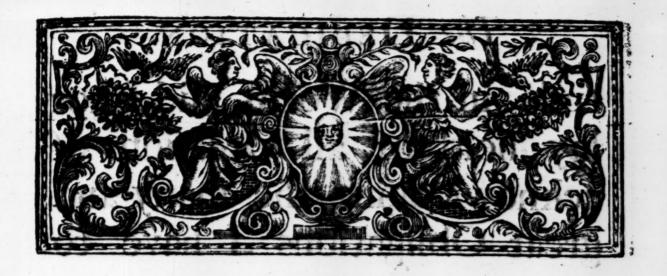
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TO

Sir Richard Steele.

SIR,

OUR continual Care of me from my Infant Years has been so remarkably Generous, that I should be guilty of the deepest Ingratitude

tude in the World, did I not lay hold of all Occasions of acknowledging the many and great Obligations I have to you.

I therefore humbly Present to You the sollowing Treatise, containing the several Philosophical Experiments shewn by Mr. Desaguliers in his publick Lectures, which I have carefully collected, and that Gentleman approved of.

been entirely owing to home. A Work fo Curious cannot fail to give extream Pleafure and Satisfaction to all Gentlemen who are Lovers of the most useful Part of Philosophy, [the Experimental] especially those who have been present at these Courses of Mr. Desaguliers, as I my self have constancly been in the Medical

But as my successful going through these Courses, has been

to choose Agnores thefe of

been entirely owing to Your Munificence and Bounty, so I know of no one who has so great a Right to this Treatise as Your Self, from whose Generosity it derived its Being.

It flys then to You for Protection, who have merited so much from Mankind; and whose Name will shine for ever Bright amongst those of the Belle Letter E. This will be an Honour to Mr.

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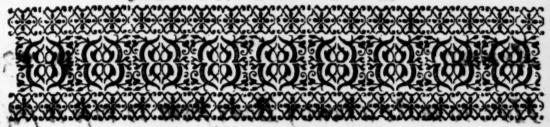
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SCHOLIUM HT

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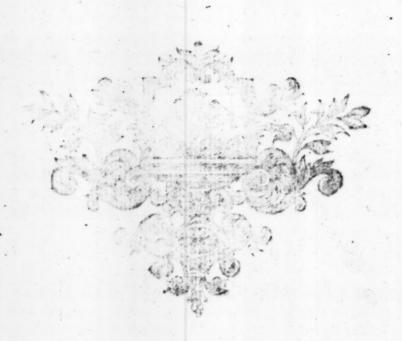
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OR

Advertisement to the READER.

By J. T. DESAGULIERS, M. A. &c.



Think my self obliged to give an Account of the following Lectures, to serve as an Apology for their appearing before I designed to

publish them.

It is about sixteen or seventeen Years since Dr. John Keil (the present Savilian Professor of Astronomy) first gave Courses of Experi-

The PREFACE.

perimental Philosophy in Oxford; and being desired by some of his Auditors to give them something in Writing upon that Subject, he wrote a few Papers to serve them as Memorandums. I was his Scholar at the last Course he gave before he went beyond Sea, but could not then get those Papers. Some time after he was gone, I was desired by some of my Friends (who knew that I had applyed my self to Experimental Philosophy) to give publick Courses, and then my Auditors desired to have written Lectures. I endeavoured to get Dr. Keil's Lectures, (as they were called) which when they were brought me I found altered according to the Fancy and Number of the Transcribers. Some Papers relating to Motion seem'd to be translated from Sir Isaac Newton's Principia, the Optical Le-Aures from Dr. Gregory's Catoptricks, and some of the Hydrostatical Propositions I took to

The PREFACE.

be put in the Method in which they were by Dr. Keil. I then corrected the Faults, added other Propositions so as to make the Book as big again as before, that it might agree with the Lectures I then gave, and drew ten Tables of Figures which I got engraven in Copper Plates, that every Auditor that was at the Pains to transcribe the Lectures, might have an Impression of the Plates, to save himself the Trouble of drawing the Figures. Mr. Dawfon (a young Man whom Sir Richard Steel had put under my Care) took a Copy of the Le-Aures above-mentioned, that they might be of Service to him when he went thro' my Courses, and they were afterwards sold and published without my Knowledge. But as the Booksellers have made me Satisfaction, and purchased the Copy of me, I have looked over the whole Book, and corrected every Error therein; because I was unwilling that those who buy

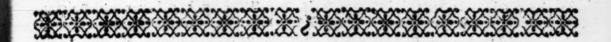
The PREFACE.

buy it should find it any wife imperfect, and desirous that it might be of use to such as go thro' Courses of Experimental Philosophy.

The Reader therefore is desired to correct the Faults with his Pen, as the Errata direct, before he begins to read the Lectures.



ERRATA:



ERRATA.

Ag. 7. Lin. 3. r. Ingredients. 1. 21. r. or coeval. p. 8. 1. 10. r. Matter at fift pull'd. p. 14. r. to weigh twelve. p. 17. l. 19. r. Fulcrum B C. p. 18. 1. 19. r. one Pound at A will fustain. p. 19. 1. 19. dele not p. 22. 1. 1. r. fix'd Point. p. 24. 1. 7. r. Piece, as D. 1. 8. r. C.C. at the other End bearing on two Pieces that are higher. 1. 10. r. radius of the Body. p. 30. l. 4. r. lance is to the Weight of the Ballance. p. 31. l. 4. r. Weight of. p. 33. l. 15. r. fix'd Point. p. 34. l. 8. dele K E G. p. 42. l. 23. r. G O the Velocity. l. ult. r. to G F. p. 43. l. 2. r. E F O & G O which: p. 44. r. pondur, and of. l. 16. dele of the second kind. p. 45. l. 6. dele L. l. 10. r. Power must be to. 1.18. r. Helices. 1. 19. r. Velocity. 1. 22 r. is longer. p. 47. l. 7 & 8. r. an endless Screw. p. 53. l. 21. r. pushed (by. 1. 22. r. Force) towards. p. 54. l. r. the Force impress'd. l. 3. r. double Momentum, or Quantity of Motion. p. 55. l. 13. dele with. l. 17. r. times. When. ibid. dele (;) after descends. 1. 23. r. inftant of time, as the. p. 56. 1. 7. dele with. 1. 11. r. as the times. p. 62. l. 1. r. Motion. 1. 13. r. upon A in the Direction C A. p. 63. 1. 20. r. B comes to A. 1. 21. r. the Beat A. p. 65. 1. 14. r. forwards, it. p. 72. 1. 12. r. towards each other with. p. 82. 1. ult. dele K E D. p. 84. 1. 7. r. above the Superficies. p. 86. 1. 11. r. exceeds. 1. 17. r. immediately over. 1. 19. r: to be nearly. 1. ult. r. to press above. p. 87. l. ult. r. Prisms or Columns. p. 88. l. 1. after B r. F. 1. 11. r. exactly fitted. 1. 13. r. Sides of the Cylinder, let a E be. p. 90. 1. 15. & 91. 1. 6. dele K E D. p. 96. 1. 17. r. mount. 1. ult. r. exceeded by it. ibid. for Surface r. Height. ibid. f. would I. when they would. p. 97. 1. 3. I. immers'd. f. heavier I. lighter. 1. 9. r. is to the. 1. 14. dele to. 1. 15. dele K E D. p. 100. 1. 5. r. E A D F. p. 103. 1. 12. 1. will continue. 1. 22 & 23. 1. after having pump'd-out the Air. P. 104. 1. 11. r. external. 1. 21. r. of 28, 29, or 30 Inches. 1. ult. r. lefs than 28 Inches. p. 105. 1. 10. r. C P. will be. 1. 11. r. C hall Sustain. 1. 22 & 23. r. as before, is Gravity atting partly. p. 106. l. 1. r. depends. l. 11 & 12. r. of 28 or 30 Inches. p. 107. l. penult. f. is ... rawould. before to r. be. p. 108. 1. 7 & 8. r. 29 or 30 Inches. 1. 10, 11, 12. remain at 28, 29, 30, or 31 Inches p. 109. 1.10. I. the different Gravity of the Air, and therefore foretells foul or fair Weather. P.111. 1.13. I. longer Tube more than in the shorter. 1.17. I. recurved Tube. p.113. at the end of 1. 2. add, That shews that Pillars of Air of equal Basis and equal Heights balance one another. 1. 3. r. 4 will rife by sucking it thro' a Crane or Syphon, but not. 1.4. r. Height as Water. 1. 17. r. restitutive. p. 117. 1.3. r. restitutive. p. 118. after last line, r. if they be let down too Suddenly. p. 120. l. 1. r. Tube. p. 121. l. 16. r. the Syringe is left. p. 122. l. 5.r. made use of it (but according to the Alterations that I have made in it since it has been in my Possession.) p. 124. f. Cleft T. Close. p. 125. 1. 19. f. left r. foft. 1. 23. r. let the faft Leather. 1. 24. r. that by the Preffure. 1. ult. dele the more. P.129 1.7.r. hanging aWeight. p.130.1.6.r. will not subside. 1.12.r. flaccid Bladder. p.134. 1.5 1.the Cock. 1.9: r. Hygrometers. p.135.1.8. r. fitted. 1.10. r.31 Inches. 1.11. r. at 30, sometimes at 29. 1. 12. dele sometimes it will fink to 27. 1. 15 & 16. r. to the Quantity of Matter, it is. p. 136. 1. 10. f. Society T. Academy. 1.13. f. in T, on. p. 139. 1. 1. f. String

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A

SYSTEM

OF

Experimental Philosophy,

PROV'D BY

MECHANICKS.



ATURAL Philosophy is that Science which gives the Reasons and Causes of the Effects and Changes which naturally happen in Bodies.

And that we may not be deceived by false Notions which we have embraced without Examining, or that we have received upon the Autho-

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rity

rity of others; we ought to call in Question all such things as have an Appearance of Falshood, that by a new Examen we may be led to the Truth.

This Examen is to be made by Suppositions, which we may rely upon, when they agree with Experiments; but if only one Experiment is contrary to any Supposition, that Supposition must be rejected, and a new one made, till we find that it agree with all other Experiments. Therefore, we must not go about to define a Cause, unless we know its Effects; or lay down a general Proposi-tion, if we doubt of any of the Particulars it comprehends, lest we run into Errors and take things for granted, which have been found contrary to Experiments and Mathematical Demonstrations. An Instance of this may be given in what has formerly been said about Heat and Cold, viz. That Heat unites homogeneous Bodies, and separates heterogeneous Bodies; and that Cold unites heterogeneous Bodies, and separates homogeneous; all which we find to be false in several Instances.

I. Mix and Melt Gold and Silver together, and the Fire will not separate them; neither will

it separate two Parts of Brass mixed with one of Copper. Description is reparated. So regress

2. It rather unites, than separates such heterogeneous Bodies as have an aptness to Coalition; as in making Plaisters and Ointments, &c. and in uniting Salt-Petre and Ashes, into so durable a Body as Glassin with think to sailed sig

Fire only diflocates the Parts of Bodies, and subdivides them into minute Particles, without respect to their being Homogeneous or Heterogeneous; which is evident in boiling Water, or other Liquors, whose Steams condense to the same Substances again. And in Distillation, where all the Parts are in a Confusion upon the slackening of the Heat, or the Parts receding from it when driven into the Receiver, they take Place according to their Specifick Gravities. Such Parts also, as are most easily Separated, are ever carried first off as in the Distillation of Man's Blood; first Water, then Spirits and Salt, then Oil. The Earth and Alkali remain together, because of an equal Degree of Fixedness, tho' Heterogeneous. Cold does not always unite heterogeneous Bodies, but separates 'em; as in the Urine of healthful People it causes a Sediment, which is again disper-B 2 sed,

fed, and made to disappear by Heat. And by Frost, the Strength of Wine is separated, and unfrozen in the middle of the Vessel. Straw, Dust, Wood, &c. are no farther united in Ice, than as they are settered up in the frozen Water.

By Elements, the Philosophers meant most Simple Bodies, of which they said, all the Bodies we see, are made, and which may be extracted from all Bodies. But they have been mistaken in constituting their Elements, because they did not so much explain the Nature of things, as what Senses those things excite in us.

They that considered things as they affect the Sight, made only two *Elements*; the *Lucid* and *Opaque*; tho' they gave but a blind Account of

Light and Colours.

The four Elements that have obtained so long, only expressed the several ways that our Touch is affected; for those that established them, considering Heat and Cold, Moisture and Dryness, supposed em the Properties and primary Qualities of all Bodies, and accordingly constituted four Elements.

The Earth, The Water, they supposed Cold and Dry, Cold and Moist, Hot and Moist, Hot and Dry.

To illustrate this Doctrine, and prove that these are in, and may be extracted from Bodies; they used to burn a piece of Green-wood, and call the Coals and Flame, Fire; the Sweat, Water; the Smoak, Air; and the Askes, Earth.

But these cannot be *Elements* according to their Definitions, for they are not Simple and Unchangeable, but may be altered and produced de novo; the Smoak, which they call'd Air, may be condensed into a Liquor; the Fire is only subtile Matter in a rapid Motion.

The Moisture will produce Caput mortuum, and Oils. The Ashes, which they call Earth, will make

Glass.

Besides, several things are not reducible into four heterogeneous Bodies, as Gold, Silver, Diamonds, common Glass, Venetian Talk. Tho' They and the Chymists have often endeavour'd it, and if they could do it, yet they could

could not prove their Elements to be unmixed, because Experiments shew the contrary. The Chymists Principles are Salt, Sulphur, and Mercury, which they call their Elements, but as erroneously; for these cannot be had from Glass, Gold, Diamonds, Sand, &c. or may be destroy-

To illuffrate this Dovon ab basubord bar be

Mr. Boyle affirms, that Quick-silver has been turned into Water, and Sulphur altered; and that the Mercuries, Sulphurs, and Salts of the Chymists, are not Similar Bodies; whereas, to be Elements, each ought not to differ from those of the same Name, more than Drops of Water do from one another. Others add to these three Principles, Caput mortuum and Phlegm; that is, Water and Earth; but these five are produceable even from Water alone; and Art can of two Elements compound a Body, as durable as any in the World, viz. Glass made of Ashes, that hath only Salt and Earth.

The Doctrine of Acids and Alcali's, is as faulty as the foregoing; for none of these Hypotheses can account for Firmness and Fluidity, the Phenomena of the Load-stone, the Formation of a Fatus, Sounds, and a thousand other things that

fall under the Notice of a Philosopher.

And as long as the Chymists, or any other Philoso-phers endeavour to explain things by a Number of mixed Ingedients in a State of Rest, they will be deficient; since the greatest Part of the Affections of Matter, and consequently the Phanomena of Nature, seems to depend on the Motion and Contrivance of the small Parts of Bodies.

That Philosophy therefore is the most reasona-ble, which teaches,

1. That the Matter of Natural Bodies is the same; namely, a Substance extended, divisible,

and impenetrable. To domes abidico

2. That fince there can be no Change in Matter, if all its Parts were at Rest among themselves; to distinguish the general Matter of the Universe, into a Variety of natural Bodies, it must have Motion, in some or all of its Parts, which must be variously determined. And tho' it is manifest to Sense, that there is a local Motion in Matter; yet Motion is not included in the Nature of Matter, Coval with it; Matter being as much Matter when at rest, as when in Motion. And tho' it be wholly disputed, how Matter came by that Motion, by those who acknowledge not an Author of the Universe; yet since a Man is not the worse

worse Naturalist for not being an Atheist; we allow that the Origine of Motion in Matter, as

well as of Matter it self, is from GOD.

3. That local Motion is the chief Principle amongst second Causes, and the chief Agent of all that happens in Nature. Bulk, Figure, Rest, Situation, and Texture, being the Effects of Motion; as in a Watch or Clock; it is Motion therefore that makes all useful.

Des Cartes supposes Matter as fixt, let it be pulled into pieces of what Shape any pleases to imagine; we will say Cubick, as most obvious. Then every one of these Parts being turned swiftly round its own Center, and also about another Center common to all the Parts; the Corners must be wore off of several of these Parts, and a fine Dust be made by that Friction. The small Dust is the Materia Subtilis, or first Element; The Cubes that have been rubbed round into Globules, make the second Element, of not so swift a Motion as the first, which is agitated between the Interstices of the Globules; The Cubes that have not lost their Shape, by having their Angles much broken, make the third and unactive Element.

To illustrate this Hypothesis, take Cubes of Clay, and shake them together in a round Box, till some of them are become pretty near round; the Dust represents the Materia Subtilis, the roundest Pieces the Globuli of the second Element, and such as have not much changed their Shape, the third Element.

Tho' this Hypothesis may seem ingenious enough at first, yet if duly weighed it will appear, inconsistent with Experiments, and the Laws of Motion. Take a Dozen or two of Cubes of any bigness, for Example, some of an Inch, some of half an Inch; and having ty'd a Thread to each, and all the Threads to the Center of a round Table, made to turn easily upon a Pivot; (as the Table of Plate 3. Fig. 5.) as soon as you have given the Table a swift Motion round its Center, all the Cubes will recede from the faid Center, and stretch the Thread; which shews they cannot grind each other into Globules; since by reason of their centrifugal Force, by which they are whirled round one common Center, they must recede from each other.

If we suppose any ambient Surface to make a Resistance (as the Box does in the Case of the Cubes

Cubes of Clay) then either the Cubes touch one another before the Motion begins, or they do not. If there be a Plenum (as Cartes believes) the Cubes touching one another in all the Parts of their Surfaces, cannot grind each others Corners off by a particular Motion in each Cube; but must all move together, and become one Body, as before the rude Lump of Matter was supposed distributed into Cubes. If there be any Spaces between the Cubes, there must be a Vacuum (which Cartes denies) or that Space must be filled with a subtile yielding Matter; which would be supposing the Materia Subtilis, before we suppose it, which is absurd; or denying Matter to be Homogeneous, which is before Supposed.

That Firmness and Fluidity, Heat and Cold, Odours, Savours, Colours, and Sounds, depend upon the Shape, Size, and Motion of the Parts, may appear from two cold Things producing Heat; as Oil of Tartar per Deliquium, poured on Oil of Vitriol, will cause it to boil and sume,

&c.

A solid Body will Iose its Smell and Firmness, by the Insusion of one Liquor, and recover both by

by the Infusion of another. As Camphire will be dissolved, and lose its Scent, by the Infusion of Oil of Vitriol; but by pouring on Water, the Smell and Solidity will be restored. Sal Armoniack dissolved into Water, makes a Mixture colder than each is fingly. Or romand to villed will ont

Water will be so rarified by means of an Æolipile, as to become lighter than Air; and if the Hand be held near the Mouth of the Æolipile, the Water that strikes on the Hand, will again be condensed, and become as heavy as at first. Several more Experiments prove this Hypothesis. Now if Firmness, Fluidity, Heat and Cold, Smells and Savours, depended only upon a Mixture of Ingredients, as some affirm; then first, two cold Things would continue Cold when mixt. Secondly, A Liquor without Smell would not give Scent to another Liquor. Thirdly, Two Fluids when mixed, would continue Fluid; but the contrary is shewed by several Experiments.

The Extension of Matter, and its Impenetrability, are self-evident; and its Divisibility appears from the Ductility of Gold; for an Ounce of Gold will guild a large Piece of Silver, which when drawn into Wire, will likewise then be all o-

ver guilded, tho' the Wire be so small, as to reach above A Hundred and fifty Miles. See an Account of the Ductility of Gold, given in square

Lines, in Clarke's Rohault, Part 1. Chap. 9.

A Candle seen by a whole Multitude, shews the Divisibility of Matter to be infinite, because the Rays of Light must enter every Man's Eye; for unless those fine Parts of the Fluid made an Impression upon the Retina of the Eye, the Candle would not be seen.

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MECHANICAL PRINCIPLES.

HE Quantity of Motion which we fometimes call the Momentum, or sometimes simply Motion, is that Force or Energy by which a Body changes its Place. Therefore we ought to take care lest we should confound Motion and Velocity together; because some People think, one Body to have more Motion than another, when it moves faster, altho' it should be less than the other

other; whereas it may only be faid to have more Velocity, Celerity, or Swiftness. But Motion is always estimated from a Consideration of the Quantity of Matter in a Body, and its Velocity together; for the same Force which will throw a Two Pound Weight three Yards (or give it three Degrees of Velocity) will throw a Weight of One Pound six Yards (or give six Degrees of Velocity) and therefore the One Pound Weight, or the Body which has the least Quantity of Matter, cannot be said to have more Motion in it than the Two Pound Weight (or the Body which has twice the Quantity of Matter) tho' it moves as fast again: For if we consider, that when the Force or Motion, which is able to carry one: Pound six Yards, is applied to a Two Pound Weight, each Half of the Two Pound Weight has an equal Share of this Motion (now distributed) it will be plain, that the Two Pound Weight ought to be carried but three Yards. The Quantity of Motion may be increased, either by keeping the same Quantity of Matter, and augmenting the Velocity, or by keeping the same Velocity, and increasing the Quantity of Matter, or by increasing both; and therefore the absoabsolute Force by which Bodies are moved, is known by the Multiplication of their Celerities

ad to notimble anto their Matter of Weight. B As for Example, in the two Bodies, Asand Botler Asber U.6 / Su A Shire Pounds, WanduBl two Polinds ; let the Velocity B with which A is moved be (2 1 30) (fix) Degrees, and let B have four Degrees hof Welocity, mais at his noise Mthen the Degrees of Motion

in A will be thirty, and B will have eigth Degrees of Momentum, or Motion many on solve

Suppose A to have twelve, and B two Pounds; let A have four Degrees of Velocity, and B thirty, the Quantity of Motion in A will be fortyeight, and in B 60. From hence it follows, that any little Body may have its Motion? equal to the Motion of any great Body, viz. If the Velocity of the little Body is so much greater than the Velocity of the great Body as the Quantity of Matter in one is greater than the Quantity of Matter in the other, (i. e) when both Bodies have their Velocities reciprocally proportionable to their Weight, their Momenta, or Quantities of Motion

tion will be equal. As for Enample, let A be fifty Pounds, and B two Pounds; let the Velor city of A be 3, and of Bi75; now 50 has the same Proportion to 2, as 75 has to 3; and therefore the Quantity of Motion in A, which is 3 times 50, of 150, is equal to the Motion in B, which is twice 75, of 150. If the Velocities of Bodies are equal, their Quantities of Motion will be as their Matter, which is contained in them; and therefore fince all Bodies (abstracting from the Resistance of Air) descend equally fast; the Motion which Bodies acquire by their Gravity in descending, will be as their Quantity of Matter. As a Feather descends as fast in vacuo as a Pound of Lead; but suppose the Lead 1000 times heavier than the Feather, the Momentum of the Lead will be 1000 times greater; Gravity is the Cause of the Descent of both: Therefore there is 1000 times more Gravity required to make the Lead descend, than the Feather; so that the Feather which has 1000 times less Matter than the Lead, may descend with as great Velocity as the Lead, the Momentum of the Lead being 1000 times greater than it. but ary Position. The whole Hall st en AndrewsAnd consequently, since all Causes are proportional to their Effects, the Gravity of Bodies, which produces their Motion downwards, will likewise be proportional to the Quantities of Matter in Bodies; and therefore the Quantity of Matter in any Body, may be estimated by its Weight; and therefore if an Inch of Lead be 6 times heavier than an Inch of Wood, there must be 6 times more Matter in the Inch of Lead, than in the same bulk of Wood; and hence may be drawn a good Argument for a Vacuum. For tho' we should grant the Existence of Materia Subtilis; yet still the Question will return, how this Matter comes to be so fine, but by having void Spaces?

We must then also suppose the Pores of all Bodies to go in a strait Line, and Horizontally; and they must always be supposed to move in the same strait Direction; otherwise the Materia Subtilis would be reflected, and so consequently not fill up all the Pores; sometimes hindering, and sometimes not hindering the Gravity of a Body; so that the same Body would be more or less heavy, as its Pores lay in a horizontal, or contrary Position. The whole Effect of Mecha-

nical

Meight to be raised, so that the Quantity of Motion it will have, may be no more than the Quantity of Motion of Motion in the Power that raises the

Weight.

Suppose a Man can raise by his Strength, without an Engine, only ten Pound Weight, with a determinate Degree of Velocity; it's not possible for him with any Engine to raise a hundred Pound with the same Velocity; yet by the Application of an Engine, a Man can raise a Hundred Pound, with the 10th Part of that Velocity.

Plate 3d. Fig. 1.] Now all that the Engine does, is to diminish the Velocity of the Pondus, so as to make its Motion no greater than the Motion of the Power raising it, as may be seen in the Vectis, which we supposed as a Mathematical Rigid, or inflixible Line, only moving round the Point C, which is called the Fillerum, B C, and C A are called the Brachia. In the Statera, the two Brachia, (tho' the one be longer than the other) are equally heavy; and consequently B C keeps in Equilibrio C A, which is divided into 10 Lengths, each of which is equal to B C. Let Q be the Weight which is to be found out by

by hanging any given Weight P upon the Brachium C A, and moving it up and down, till it makes an Equilibrium, you will find out the Weight Q; for since P in the Distance 5, is Equiponderate with Q, it follows that Q is the

Quintaple of P, as is here Demonstrated.

Now suppose that if the Brachia are equal, a Man could only raise ten Pounds; then I say, that if you alter the Brachia, and make C A 10 times longer then B C, he can by this Engine raise a Hundred Pound; for, because B C, is but the 10th Part of C A, the Space B b will be but the 10th Part of A a, and consequently when B moves, it will have but the 10th Part of the Velocity of A; but by Supposition the Force of A is so great, as to raise by that Velocity a Body of Ten Pounds; therefore it will raise by the 10th Part of that Velocity a Body of a Hundred Pounds. From hence it follows, that the Weight at A will weigh 10 Pounds, placed at B; for, because A a is 10 times greater than B b, the Velocity of One Pound at A, will be to times greater than the Velocity of Ten Pounds at B; and therefore their Quantities of Motion will be equal, they being reciprocally proportional to their Momenta, or équal Forces that moved them; these Forces being contrary, or acting contrary, the one to the other, will destroy one anothers

Motion, and keep an Equilibrium.

A Point in any Body so placed, that all Matter on every Side Gravitates equally, is called the Center of Gravity of that Body; the Center of Gravity is not always the Center of Magnitude, as in the Statera Romana, where it's not required that the short Brachium should have an equal Quantity of Matter to what the long one has.

The Center of Motion is that Point, round which if a Body moves, every Point of it deferibes Circles, whose Centers are in the Center of Motion! The Center of Gravity of all Bodies descends as much as it can; and if a Body be suspended by its Center of Gravity, it will not retain any given Position; for in that Case the Center of Gravity cannot descend. If the Center of Gravity be different from the Center of Motion, and then if the Center of Gravity be put out of the Perpendicular, the Body will turn round till the said Center of Gravity be just under

der the Center of Motion, for then it has descended as much as it can.

Plate 3d. Fig. 2d. Let A B be a Beam, whose Center of Motion at m is above the Center of Gravity c, if it were turned out of the horizontal Position, the Center of Gravity must ascend, Suppose to k; and therefore if the Body be lest to it self, 'twill turn round, till the Center of Gravity comes again to its former Position.

In a Balance the Axis, and the Center of Motion is a little above the Center of Gravity; for if it were exactly in it, it would retain any given Position; but by being above it, the Beam of the Balance when in Aquilibrio, must settle it self

in an horizontal Polition.

The Center of Motion may be put below the Center of Gravity, but if you move them ever so little out of an exact Perpendicular, the Scales will not be in an Equilibrium; but as soon as you let the Balance hang freely, the Center of Gravity will get below the Center of Motion.

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MECHANICAL POWERS.

DEFINITIONS.

I. Weight is any Body to be raised, or mov'd.

Weight is raised, whether it be a Force that Draws, or Pushes, or Strikes, or a Weight which Gravitates; for a Weight is a Power, in reference to the heavy Body which it may move.

3. The Absolute Gravity of a Body, is its En-

deavour to descend in a free Medium.

4. The Relative Gravity of a Body, is its Endeavour to descend when it touches, something else besides the Parts of the Medium; and that is always less than the Absolute.

5. Equilibrium, is, when there is the same Quantity of Motion in the Power, as there is in the Weight; because these Motions being contrary, the one destroys the other.

6. The

6. The Center of Motion, Fulcrum, or first Point,

are all the same.

7. The Line of Direction of a Power or Weight, is that in which it endeavours to move. In a heavy Body the right Line, by which it endeavours to descend. In a Power, the right Line by which a Power draws or pushes a Weight, (Plate I. Fig. I.) If C draws A over B, B C is the Line of Direction of the Power, and A D that of the Weight, by which it resists the Traction.

8. The Application of a Power to a Vectis, or Leaver, is the Angle which the Line of Direction of that Power makes with the Leaver, as the An-

gle AB E in Fig. 2. Plate 1.

9. The Distance of a Power or Weight is a Line drawn from the fixed Point perpendicular to the Line of Direction, as CF. Fig. 2. Plate 1.

10. In all regular and homogeneous Bodies, the Center of Gravity is in the Center of Magnitude.

SUPPOSITIONS

1. We must suppose the Earth slat, because the greatest Engines are but as a Point, when compared with the Surface of the Earth.

2. When

2. When heavy Bodies fall freely, they make Lines perpendicular to the Earth, meeting in the Center of the Earth; and those we are to suppose Parallel.

3. Tho' Engines are imperfect, we must suppose them perfect; that by such a Supposition we may better find out what they'll do, as that Bodies are perfectly hard, smooth and homogeneous. Lines strait, without Weight, Thicknefs, or Flexibility, and Cords extreamly pliable.

AXIOMS.

I. To raise a Weight with an Engine, the Velocity of the Power must be increased and that of the Weight lessened.

2. The Center of Gravity always descends as

low as it can.

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3. A Body can fall no lower than it is, unless.

its Center of Gravity descends.

W of this two!

4. If all the Weight of a Body was reduced into its Center of Gravity, it would move as before:

Proposition I. Probleme.

How to make a heavy Body seem to rise of it self.

THE Body must be a double Cone of Wood, or any solid Matter, as in this Figure. Set two long slat Pieces of

Wood on a Table, crossing each other at one end on another Piece (Plate I.

Fig. 3.) as C C D, so as to raise them almost as high above the horizontal Plain at the other End, as is the Difference of the Radius at A, and that at B; then lay the Body A B A upon them at D, where they must meet in an Angle, and it will roul up to C, if the Distance C C be no greater than the Distance A A. The Reason follows:

When the Body is laid on at D, the Center of Gravity, which is in the middle of the Diameter B A, where it's cut by the Axis (Plate 1. Fig. 3.) A A (because the Body is Regular and Homogeneous) is higher than it is when the Body has rouled to C.C. Now because the Center of Gravity endeavours to fall as low as it can, the Body will roul to C.C. where it's lower than it was before,

before, tho' its Supporters be higher, as will appear by holding a Thread horizontally from D to E; for if the Body touch the Thread when at D, it will be below it when it has rolled to E.

Prop. II. Theoreme.

What is faid of the Descent of a heavy Body, is to be understood of its Center of Gravity; because unless the Center of Gravity can fall, the Body cannot fall, by the foregoing Prop. for the Body (Plate 1. Fig. 5.) A B G D, which stands upon the horizontal Plane F C, cannot fall towards F, where it inclines; because its Center of Gravity E would rise, which appears (Fig. 5.) by drawing the Arch E F about the Point B. But A B C D will fall, because its Center of Gravity can fall, as (Fig. 6.) appears by Construction.

SCHOLIUM.

Fig. 4.) Since the first Impulse of an heavy Body downwards, is begun at its Center of Gravity, and that the Center of Gravity endeavours to get as low as it can; a heavy Body must endeavour to descend in a Line (called the Line of Direction, as E G, C O) drawn from its Center of Gravity to the Center of the Earth,

Earth, or Centrum Gravium, which is the lowest Place; and if it can't move in the Line EG, by reason of the Interposition of a Plain, (so inclined as not to hinder the Center of Gravity from descending) 'twill fall obliquely by sliding or rolling, so as to get into the Line of Direction CO, as fast as it can.

COROLL. I.

Hence also will the Body D slide, and the Body F roll upon the inclined Plane A B C (Fig. 4.) to get to the Line C O, Parallel to its Line of Direction E G.

COROLL. 2.

Fig. 5. and 6.) Hence also will Bodies stand firm upon an horizontal Plain, if their Line of Direction talls within their Basis. Thus the Body of (Fig. 5.) will stand, and that of (6) fall. A Bowl will easily change its Place, because its Base being but one Point (Plate I. Fig. 7.) it's easy for the Line of Direction E G to sall out of it. This is the Reason also, why it's almost impossible to set a strait Stick or a Needle upright upon a smooth horizontal Plane, because that the Lines

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Lines of Direction E G fall out of their Bases. What is said of the Center of Gravity, may be also understood of the common Center of Gravity of two heavy Bodies, as we shall shew in the Example of the Balance.

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Of the BALANCE.

Prop. I. Theoreme.

WHEN a Balance has its Brachia of the fame Length and Weight, the Power and the Weight are equal.

Prop. II. Probleme.

To make an Equilibrium with an horizontal Balance, (Fig. 8.) Let the Weight D be to the Power E as the Distance CB of the Power to the Distance AC of the Weight; and so vice versa. Thus will the Center of Gravity be brought under the Center of Motion.

Prop.

Prop. III. Theorem.

By increasing the Velocity of the Power, the Velocity of the Weight is lessened, as has been shewed in the Statera Romana.

Prop. IV. Probleme.

Knowing the Weight of two heavy Bodies applied to the Ends of a Balance of known Length, to find upon that Balance the common Center of Motion.

Let A B the Balance be twenty-four Inches long, the Weight D twelve Ounces, E six Ounces. To find the fixed Point whence the Balance being suspended, the Weight will hang in Aquilibrio. Find a 4th proportional to 18.6:: 24: which will be eight Inches for A C: that is, as 18 (the Sum of the two Weights) is to 6 the least Weight, so is twenty-four Inches (the whole Length of the Balance,) to eight Inches or A C the Distance of the fixed Point from that End of the Balance which has the biggest Weight.

Tho' this is true in the Theory, yet it won't hold in the Practice because (Plate 1. Fig. 9.) the Ba-

lance

lance AB, which we have supposed without Weight, can't be really so; because the two Brachia are not of the same Weight. Hang the Weight F = to D + E at C, (which by Axiom 3.) won't alter the Effect of the two Weights DE. Then hang at I the Center of Gravity of the Balance, the Weight G = to the Balance's Weight; then considering C I as a Balance laden with its two Weights, at its Ends C I, find out O the common Center of Gravity, as taught, vizs. F+G:G::C I:CO.

Prop. V. Prob.

Knowing the Length and Weight of a Balance, which has at one of its Ends, a Body of known Weight; to find the fixed Point, about which the Balance and Weight of the Body shall remain in Æquilibrio.

Length of the Balance 12 Inches, Weight of the Ball: 16 oz. Weight of D 8 oz. Sum of the Weights 24 oz. Half Length of the Balance 6 Inches.

[30]

find a 4th proportional to 24:16::6: which will be four Inches for AC; that is as the Weight of the Body together with the Weight of the Balance; so is half the Length of the Balance to A C, the Distance from the Weight of the Body to the fixed Point.

Prop. VI. Prob.

How to make a deceitful Balance, which being empty and also laden with unequal Weights, shall remain in Æquilibrio.

Fig. 11.) Let the Length AC be to B C as the Weight of the Scale E, to that of the Scale D. The Æquilibrium will be kept if the Scales are laden with Weights, that have the same ratio to one another, as II to 12; but the Fraud will be detected by changing the Place of the Weights.



Of the LEAVER.

Prop. I. Theoreme.

the Weight an animate Power being the same as the different Weights in the Balance, and the fixed Point the same as the Center of Motion.

Prop. II.

The three first Propositions of the Balance are true concerning the Leaver. (Fig. 12, 13, 14, 15.) C is the Fulcrum, or fixed Point; E the Power applied at B and D, the Weight applied at A.

Fig. 12. Is a Leaver of the first Kind, as are also Scissars, Pinchers, Snuffers, &c. This Leaver has the Power at one End, the Weight at the other, and Fulcrum in the Middle.

Fig. 13. Is a Leaver of the second Kind, as are also the Oars and Rudders of a Boat, cutting Knives fixed at one End, and Doors moving on Hinges.

Hinges. These Leavers have the Weight in the Middle, the Power at one End, and the Fulcrum at the other.

Fig. 14. Is a Leaver of the third Kind, as are also Ladders taken up by the Middle to be reared against a Wall. This Leaver has the Power in the Middle, the Weight at one End, and the Fulcrum at the other.

Fig. 15. Is a bended Leaver of the fourth Kind; but it may as well be reckoned a Leaver of the first Kind, because its Fulcrum is between the Power and the Weight; when you draw a Nail with an Hammer it becomes a bended Leaver.

Fig. 12 and 15.) In a Leaver of the first or fourth Kind, the Weight and the Power may be equal, as it must happen when A C is equal to BC. The Power may be greater than the Weight, as when B C is greater than A C, or the Weight greater than the Power, as when A C is greater than B C.

Fig. 13.) In a Leaver of the second Kind, the Weight must be always greater than the Power, because its Distance from the Fulcrum will be always less than the Power's Distance; for wherever the Weight D is applied; A C will be a Part of B C,

and therefore must always be less than its whole

Fig. 14. In a Leaver of the third Kind, the Power must always be greater than the Weight, because CE the Distance of the Power will always be less than A C, of which it can be but a Part.

N.B. In all these Cases an Æquilibrium is supposed.

Prop. III. Theoreme.

A Power which pushes or draws a Leaver at right Angles, has greater Effect then at oblique Angles. Angles.

DEMONSTRATION.

Fig. 16. Since the Force of a Power depends upon its Distance from the first Point, and since (by Def. 9.) the Distance of the Power is a Line drawn perpendicular to the Line of Direction; it is plain by Construction, that CB the Distance of the Power applied at right Angles, is greater than GF the Distance of it applied at obtuse, or CK the Distance of it applied at acute Angles, and drawing towards Language animisman availatione I rizon

For fince (by 15 Def: I. El: Eucl:) CF=CL=CK, and CL being Part of CB, (the Distance of the Power drawing at G, and applied at right Angles) is less than CB (by Ax. 9. 1 El.) Likewise CF and CK must be less than CB: Therefore a Power applied at right Angles, has a greater Effect than if applied at oblique Angles KEG.

N. B. CF is the Distance of the Power E, applied at B, and drawing at obtuse Angles, as the Angle CBE and CK is the Distance of a Power still applied at B, and drawing in the Line IK at the acute Angle CBI.

Prop. IV. Theoreme.

Plate 2d. Fig. 1.) If a Power, whose Line of Direction is perpendicular to a Leaver parallel to the Horizon bears up, by means of that Leaver, a Weight whose Center of Gravity is above the Leaver, it must be greater to bear it up, when the Leaver is horizontal, than when it is inclined, and the Weight raised; and greater yet when the Weight is lower, the Line of Direction of the Power always remaining perpendicular to the Horizon;

rizon. The Reason of this is, because the Body does not hang freely from the Leaver, to which it is fixed; for if it did, the Distance of the Weight would decrease in the same proportion as the Distance of the Power does, when the Leaver is moved out of its horizontal Position: That is, when the Leaver I B (where I C is the Distance of the Weight, and C B the Distance of the Power) is moved into the Position O D, and the Distance of the Power at D becomes CN (by Def. 9.) the Distance of the Weight would become Ch, if the Weight was to hang freely from E; but fince the Body E O M is fixed to the Leaver, it endeavours to descend in the Line of Direction O L, drawn perpendicularly downwards from the Center of Gravity O, which causes the Distance of the Weight to be only LC instead of hC; and therefore the Body's Gravity decreasing in greater Proportion than the Force of the Power, (which is a Weight that hangs freely) the Body O requires a lesser Power to bear it up when it is fixed upon an inclined Leaver above the Horizon, than when that Leaver is parallel to the Horizon. Likewise in the Leaver A K, if the Body O, or the Weight was to hang freely from F, its Distance would be

t C decreased in the same Proportion as C Q the Distance of the Power; but since by reason of the Body's being fixed above the Leaver, the Line of Direction produced is KOg and its Distance; g C its Gravity must be greater, when by the Inclination of the Leaver it is below the Horizon

Plate 2d. Fig. 2d.) The inverse Prop. is true of the Center of Gravity of the Body below the

Leaver.

Since the Demonstration of this Theor, is the same as the other, a Sight of the Figure is sufficient; where you may observe that in the Leaver A E the Distance of the Weight is MC, whereas it would be n C if the Body should hang freely; and in the Leaver DG the Distance of the Weight is Cn, whereas it would be CM if the Body should freely hang.

If two carry a Weight upon, or hanging from the Middle of a Leaver, he carries most who is nearest to the the Weight. (Vide 3d and 4th Fig.)

Of the Leaver or Balance, is meant what Archimedes said of his lifting up the whole Earth if he had a Place to fix his Instrument; and it was by these Powers that he is said to have lifted the Roman Ships.

Fig. 6.) A lower Pull off of hair the Velocity of the Weight, and to doubles the Force of the Power; because whilst to moves one Foot, 3 moves two Fameroad T. I. qord

Weight, the upper Pullies are Leavers of the first Kind, and the lower Pullies Leavers of the fecond Kind; for in C E and B H, the Powers are applied at E and H, the Weight at C and B, and the Fulcra are in the Middle O; but in I K and F G, the Powers are applied at I F, the Weights at O and K G are the Fulcra.

I wood the following the Middle O; but in I K and F G, the Powers are applied at I F, the Weights at O and K G are the Fulcra.

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Plate 2. Fig. 5.) And ipper Pulley adds no Force to the Power, because it is a Leaver of the first kind, with its Fuscrum just in the Middle; and in such a Case the Velocity of the Weight is not diminished, and consequently that of the Power not increased.

Prop.

Prop. III. Theoreme.

Fig. 6.) A lower Pukey takes off half the Velocity of the Weight, and so doubles the Force of the Power; because whilst 10 moves one Foot, 5 moves two Foot.

Prop. IV. Theoreme.

Fig. 7.) As one is to the Number of the Parts of the Rope applied to the lower Pullies, so is the Power to the Weight. Ex. Gr. If the Hand can raise but ten Pound without an Engine, it will by the Help of the Pullies, [Fig. 7.] be able to raise forty Pound; or one Pound hanging at A will keep in Aquilibrio four Pound hanging at the lowest O, or in the Place of the Body D.

Prop. V.

What a Power by a Pulley gets in Strength, it loses in Swiftness, as it does by all other Engines.

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Of the AXLE in the WHEEL.

Prop. I. Theoreme.

Fig. 8. A S the Radius of the Axis to the Radius of the Wheel; so the Power to the Weight: That is, as C D to A B, so is the Power applied at A to the Weight; or rather, as the Circumference of the Wheel = Velocity of the Power = is to the Circumference of the Axis = Velocity of the Weight =, so is the Weight to the Power.

COROLL.

Plate 2. Fig. 10.) This is observed in Watches, where the Radius of the Wheel in the Fuze increases, as the Force of the Spring is weakned; that the Axis of the Fuze may be always turned round with the same Force. When the Spring is Strongest it draws at A when weakest at B.

Prop. II. Theoreme.

An Axis in Peritrochio is a Leaver of the first Kind; AB the Radius of the Wheel being the Distance

stance of the Power; and G.D. the Radius of the Axis being the Distance of the Weight. Fig. 8.

By the Multiplication of Wheels, an Hair may

draw up an Oak by the Roots.

To this Power are reducible, Whimbles, Augors, Windlaffes Trepans, &c. milas on ? . 8 . 8 ding of the Wheel: so the Power to

The state of the s

Power applied at A to the Weight; or rather, as the Circumteres 200 tacWhalt 10elocity of the

Fig. 11. A Wedge is the most Simple of Me-chanical Engines, and is a solid Triangle; usually of kron, to stide against the Parts of

the Body it cleaves.

To understand the Power of the Wedge, one of the ewo hat Sides which incline to one another, is to be look'd upon as an inclined Plane, and the other as an horizontal Plane; and we must conceive that by the help of this inclined Plane, a Power Malt raise a Weight, which without this Engine it could not so much as bear up

Fig. 15.) Let the Triangle DBC, Rectangular at B, represent a Wedge, D the Point or Edge of it, B C the Heady and to be more plainly understood.

stood, let D B the Length of the Wedge be twice its Height B C, and the Basis B D perfectly Smooth, so that being applied to the horizontal Superficies A B, which also I suppose perfectly Smooth, the Wedge D B C may slide upon that horizontal Plane A B, without any Difficulty. Then again, let us suppose that the Weight E be hindred from going to A by the Plane HIK perpendicular to the Horizon, which yet does not hinder the Wedge from fliding along the horizontal Plane A B, when it shall be drawn or pushed from B towards E, by a Power whose Line of Direction is parallel to the Horizon. If then the Power pushes the Wedge D B C regularly from B towards A, in causing it to slide upon the horizontal Plane A B, it will cause the Weight E to rise up by so regular a Motion, that its Center of Gravity E will never go out of the Line EF perpendicular to the Horizon; so that when the Point B shall come to D, the Point C to F, and the Point D to G, (that is, when the Wedge DBC shall be in the Position GDF) the Weight E by the Resistance of the Plane A I K shall have been forced to rife by the inclined Plane C D, or F G, which will have pushed it upwards

upwards towards F; so that it will have risen the whole Length of the Line D F, when the Power shall have moved the Length of the Line B D or G D, which is twice D F by the Supposition.

Since then in this Supposition the Power has double the Velocity of the Weight, it ought to have double the Force of the Weight; therefore it needs not be more than half the relative Weight of that Pondus upon the inclined Plane C D to be able to bear it there; according to that general Law of Mechanicks which we have taken Notice of in the foregoing Engines (viz.) that the Power increases proportionally as its Velocity increases: Whence we may easily conclude, that when a Power whose Line of Direction is parallel to the Horizon, sustains a Weight by the Means of a Wedge, whose Basis is also parallel to the Horizon, that Power is to the Weight it bears up: as the Height of the Wedge to its Base.

COROLL.

Hence the sharper the Wedge is, the more easily it will enter, because G the Velocity of the Power [Fig. 12. Plate 2d.] will be greater in proportion to F, that of the Weight; and when this

this Wedge shall be used to cleave a Body, as A B C D, the more the Planes EFGO which make up this Wedge, are inclined to one Mother, the more easily will the Parts E G slip along the Wedge.

Of for an horizontal Plane, and the Resistance that the Body A B C D makes in its upper Part when it is disjunited from its lower, may pass for a Weight, whose Line of Direction is perpendicular to its lower horizontal Part C D.

This which is true in the Theory, would hold in the Practice if the Plane of the Wedge, and that Plane whereon it slides were perfectly Smooth, and the Weight truly Spherical; but since there cannot be of such a Mathematical Exactness, the Practice won't hold; therefore Percussion is applied, which is the only effectual Means, because the Parts of the Wedge will stick less when the whole is put into a Tremulous Motion.

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The Reason why a small Hammer with a violent Blow, will not have so much Effect as a G 2 small small Blow with a Sledge, is, that a Sledge with a small Force added to its Gravity, will have more Motion downwards, than a little Hammer with a swift Blow, because the Motion is in a ratio made up of the Pondus of the Velocities.

Plate 2. Fig. 13.] The Wedge may be reducible to the Leaver: Thus C D A is as two Leavers of the first Kind, whose fixed Points are at B B, or rather as in Fig. 14. it represents two Leavers of the second Kind, whose Fulcra are in the common Point A.

The Weights to be moved at C, and the Pow-

ers applied at B.

To this Power are reducible Nails, Bodkins, Hatchets, Knives, Saws, Files, &c. being Wedges fastened to Leavers of the second Kind.

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Of the SCREW.

Plate 2. Fig. 17. HE Screw is nothing but a Wedge continued round a Cylinder in a Spherical Manner; the Male-Screw A B is an outside, and the Female-Screw C D an inside Screw.

To shew better how the Screw works, suppose the Weight E to move upon the solid Triangle, D C B from E to C, it will be the same thing as if the solid Triangle had moved under it, and forced it up to F, where it must go, because the vertical Plane H I K Lhinders it from rising in anylother Line besides E F. Now, because the Power has moved the whole Length of the Line C D, and the Weight only that of the Line E F, the Lower must be the Weight: as the Length of the Line E F, which is the Velocity of the Weight, is to the Length of the Line D C, which is the Velocity of the Power.

Fig. 16.] To estimate therefore the Force of the Screw, we must look upon the Height of the Cylinder H I P Q as the Velocity of the Weight, and the Thread H K L M N O P (if its Helexes were unwound and laid at full Length) as the Velocities of the Power: Therefore by the Force of a Screw, the Gravity of a Weight, or any other Pressure will be lessened as much as the Spiral Line H K L M N O P, is greater than H P or I Q, the perpendicular Height of the

Screw.

To flew better how the Serew works, hippois the Weight E to n. L. J. O. R. O. R. Colid Triangle,

Hence the choser the Thread of the Screw, the greater will be its Force, because its Thread will be longer in proportion to its Height, and it will move the slower.

nylother Line behdes H. F. Now, because the Power has moved Mc Wile U OHID Rethe Line C.D.

If long Leavers be added to the Screw, its Force will be still increased after the manner that was shewed in the Explication of the Leaver.

The Advantage of this Mechanical Faculty is, that whereas other Mechanical Engines cease to act, and the Weight returns when the Power does not continue to act; this sustains the Weight, and retains all the Force that was communicated to it, when the first Mover ceases to act, because the Weight pressing the Cylinder along the Axis, pushes the Threads of the Male-Screw against those of the Female-Screw; whereas an Helical Motion is required to unscrew so much as is screwed up of the Instrument. Now in other Engines, a Pulley, for Example, or Leaver, the Weight will return as soon as the Hand ceases to pull

pull the Rope, or press upon the End of the

Plate 2. Fig. 9.] But then there is this Disadvantage, that a Screw is screwed up as far as it can go in a little time, which Inconveniency may yet be reinedied in compound Engines, if you make it a perpetual Screw and apply it to a Wheel, as in the 9th Figure, where the perpetual Screw GDE fixed to the Cylinder AB takes the Teeth of the Wheel F, and turns it continually the same way, till it has by means of its Axis drawn up the Weight G, tho' ever so distant at first.

That this Power is reducible to a Leaver, appears from its being a Wedge, which we have shewed to be made up of two Leavers of the first

or fecond Kind.

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cornal Agent to make that Change of Direction.

Of the Laws of NATURE.

HE First LAW of NATURE, is, that all Bodies endeavour to preserve themselves in the same State, either of Motion or Rest. So that if the Body be at Rest, it never comes

comes of its own accord to Motion, but must have something to move it; and if it is once in Motion, it endeavours to persist in that Motion, always according to the same Direction in the same strait Line, nor can it be stopt but by a Force equal to the Force of its Motion. This is plain, for Bodies being of an unactive Mass of Matter can acquire no Change or Mutation of their own State; and a Body can no more change its Motion, and come to Rest, than it can change it self from one Figure to another; after the same manner it can never change its Direction, but will always continue to go forwards in the same strait Line. But whatever Change is made in a Body, must be by some extrinsical Agent; and if a Body ever changes its Direction, there must be some external Agent to make that Change of Direction, and if it were left to it self, it would always move uniformly forward in the same strait Line: If a Body move in any Medium, it must necessarily thrust away Parts of the Medium that are in its way; and therefore fince whatever Motion it communicates to them, it must lose it self. A Body that moves in the Air must continually lose of its Motion; whereas if there was no Gravity,

nor any Air, a Stone once thrown up would go on in infinitum, without losing its Motion. The Air then is the only Cause why Bodies lose of their Motions when thrown up, and Gravity is the only Cause which brings them to the Earth.

In the Heavens where the Æther is exceeding thin, and next degree to nothing, the Planets preserve their Motions without the least sensible Diminution: From hence we know the way how Motion is communicated to Bodies; for when a Man holds a Stone in his Hand, the Stone participates of the Motion of his Hand, because being in it, is moved with the same Velocity as the Hand is: Now by this Law of Nature, a Body once put in Motion, will always endeavour to go forward according to the same Direction. And therefore, when the Man draws back his Hand without the Stone it having once had a Motion forward, will always endeavour to continue in it. Because all Bodies affect to move in a strait Line, there must necessarily be some Force to make them move in a crooked. This Force may be either a String, by which they are tied to the Center of their Motion, or by some other Centripetal Force, such as Gra-

vity,

ty, which continually presses them towards the Center.

Plate 3. Fig. 3.] Suppose a Body put in Motion at A, it will endeavour to move in the same strait Line A B; but the Force of Gravity continually pressing it towards the Center, that is, from B downwards, or in a Line perpendicular to the Earth, it will move in the Diagonal of the

Parallelogram C if you fill it up.

Plate 3d. Fig. 6.] When the Bomb is by the Force of the Powder thrown out of the Mortar, it endeavours by the First Law of Nature to go on in the right Line ce; but Gravity acting upon it in the Direction eb, makes it move in the Line cb, Diagonal of the Parallelogram, contained under the Lines ceb; that is (supposing two other Lines to be drawn = and || to the said Lines ceb) by a Motion compounded of the Force pushing towards a from c, and that which pushes towards b from e.

Then the Bomb would by the First Law of Nature continue to go on towards d in the Line dg, being the aforesaid Diagonal produced; but Gravity acting upon it in the Direction g f, makes it by a compounded Motion go on in the

Dia-

Diagonal bf of the new Parallelogram contained under a g g f, and so on till it comes to the Point h. Now fince the first Impetus and Gravity does not act alternately, but at the same time all the while the Bomb moves, we must suppose the said Diagonals (in which the Body moves) to be infinitely small; and then all of them together will make up the Curve c bf h, called a Parabolick

Line, in which all Projectiles move.

The swifter a Body moves in a Circle, the stronger is its Endeavour to move in a strait Line, and the more the Thread will be stretched by which it is kept in; the Force by which it stretches the Thread is called Centrifugal Force (as is easily seen in Slings) and the Force of the Thread which detains it, must be just equal to this Centrifugal Force; but if Gravity or any other Centriperal Force detains the Body in its Orbit, the Centripetal Force must be just equal to the Centrifugal, that the Body may be kept in the same Circle.

If a Body lye upon a Table, and if the Table be moved, at first the Body will not participate of the Motion of the Table, but will feem to go the contrary way; as is plain from a Ves-

H 2

sel of Water set upon a Table; but after that Motion is once communicated, if you stop the Table suddenly, the Body lying on it will continue its Motion. If a round Table parallel to the Horizon, be turned round an Axis, and a Bullet by the Help of a Thread made fast to the Center, [Plate 3d. Fig. 5.] tho' the Thread be flack at first, yet the Table being turned round, the Bullet at C will recede from the Center and stretch the Thread as at D; if the Table be stopt on a sudden, yet the Bullet will for some time continue its Motion; if the Bullet be not put upon the Table, but hang down by the Thread, as in the Posture A B, after the Table is turned round the Thread will not keep its perpendicular Position, but will settle it self in the Position A b, the Centrifugal Force acting against the Force of Gravity, and making the Body recede as far as it can from the Center of Motion.

If a Glass Tube be laid or fastned to a Table, in which near the Center be put a small Bullet, when the Table is turned round we may observe the Bullet to recede from the Center towards the Circumference, and accelerate its Motion.

Besides

Besides this, it will go against the common Law of Gravity, and move upwards if the Tube be set slanting upwards on the Table, being sirst fixed to a Piece of Wood, represented in Fig. 4. Plate 3. and it will stay at the upper End of the Tube beyond, as long as the Table is continued in its swift Motion; but when that ceases it is pressed

down again by its own Gravity to G.

The same is observed when we put Globules of Mercury or Water in the Tube. If we fill the Tube with Water, and put a piece of Cork in the End of it, which is next to the Circumference, we may observe, that after turning round the Table, the Cork will go from the Circumference towards the Center; for the Water being more Dense, or consisting of a greater Quantity of Matter, than the Piece of Cork of the same bulk, it will have a greater vis Centrisuga, or a stronger Conatus recedendi a Centro than the Cork has; and consequently the Cork which has much less Force, will be pushed by the Water which has a greater Force towards the Center.

The Second LAW of NATURE, is, that the Motion produced, or the Mutation of Motion, is always

always proportional to the Motion imprest, which generates the Motion. A double Force will produce a double Quantity or Momentum of Motion; and a triple Force, a triple, &c. and this Motion will always be according to the Direction of the Force which impresses it; and if the Body was moved before this new Motion arising from this new Force, it will either increase its Motion, if it acts according to the same Direction, or diminish it, if it acts in a contrary Direction; or if it acts obliquely, it alters the Direction, and turns the Body moved another way.

If a Body be once put in Motion by the First Law, it ought always to go on with the same Velocity, and in the same Direction; but if a new Force, equal to the somer, act again upon it, according to the same Direction its Motion will be encleased doubly. If, again, the same Force

will be encleased doubly. If, again, the same Force acts, its Motion will be triple of the first, &c.

Thus if A was put in Motion towards B, having

once acquired an *Impetus* that way, it would always continue in it; but if we should suppose that when the Body comes to C, that the fame Force

Force acted again upon it, it would produce a Motion equal to the former; and both of them put together will be double of the first. Again, when the Body comes to D, if the same Force should act again upon it, there would arise a new Quantity of Motion equal to either of the former, and the whole being put together will be triple of the first Motion. If, again, when the Body comes to E, the same Force acted upon it, it would again produce more Motion, which would be equal to the first; and so the whole Motion arising from all these Actions put together, would be Quadruple with the first. If this Force thus acting imprinted equal Degrees of Motion at equal Intervals of Time, the Motion produced, and consequently the Velocity will be as the Times when a heavy Body descends; Gravity acting upon it at first, gives it a Motion downwards: Now if the Body should cease for ever after to be heavy, yet the Body will go on in the same Direction, and with the same Velocity by the First Law; but then in the second Instance of Time, the Body is heavy, and Gravity continues to act, it will again produce a Motiequal to the former. Just

Just so if the Body should for ever cease to be heavy, yet it would still continue its Course with the two acquired Degrees of Velocity; but then Gravity acts the third Instant of Time, after the same manner it did at first, and makes a Motion equal to the first Degree, and therefore the Sum of the whole will be triple with the first. After the same manner the Motion the fourth time will be Quadruple of what it was the first Instant, and so the Motions will always increase the Times. This is the Reason why we find Bodies in their descending accelerate their Motions. When Bodies fall, the Spaces through which they descend, are the Squares of the Time they take to fall in, always counting from the beginning thus.

Plate 3d. Fig. 7 and 8.] If in the first Minute of Time a Body falls through a certain Space, at the End of the second Minute it will have descended four Times in that Space; in the End of the third Minute it will have descended nine Times that Space which it did go through in the End of the first. So if the Times be taken in Arithmetical Progression of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, then the Spaces through which the Bodies will have descen-

descended at the End of these Times, will be as 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, &c. If it be asked how far the Body moves in the second Minute? It will have moved just three Spaces; for it had moved thro' one in the first, and so likewise in the third Minute 'twill have moved thro' five; for at the End of the second Minute it had moved thro' four; take four from nine, and there remains five.

The two rectangular Triangles of Fig. 7. made up of other rectangular Triangles, represent the Spaces gone thro' in a determinate Time, each single Triangle denoting one Space: As for Example, in the upper Figure marked 7, if we suppose a falling Body to set out at the rate of one Mile in one Minute; let the No I. and the Perpendicular of the little Triangle at top express the first Time or Minute, and the same No I. and the Base of the little Triangle express the Velocity, which always is at the Times; and let the whole Triangle express one Mile that the Body fell the first Minute; then if you consider that the Body having fallen four Times, the Line expressing the Time must be the Perpendicular of the great Triangle, which I is four times greater than that of

the little upper Triangle: Likewise the Line expressing the Velocity must be in the Base of the great Triangle, which Base is four Times greater than the Base of the little Triangle; and the whole Triangle will be the Sum of the Spaces or Miles gone thro' in four Minutes, which will appear by dividing it into little Triangles equal to the first. A Sight of the Figure will easily teach how to know the Miles that the Body has fallen thro' in any Number of Minutes or Times.

If a Body [Fig. 10. Plate 3..] as A lies upon an inclined Plane, it endeavours to descend Perpendicular, but the Plane hindring it, with part of its Weight it will press upon the Plane, and with the rest it will descend as fast as it can along the Plane; but it will not accelerate its Motion so fast, as if it did all along descend Perpendicularly; thus in falling from B to C, it takes longer time than if it had gone directly from B to D in the L, so that at the Point C it will have as much Velocity in falling from B to C, as it will have at D, in falling from B to D. The less the Plane is inclined to the Horizon, or the nearer it comes to the L, the safter it will accelerate its Motion.

Fig. 11.] Thus it will fall sooner from B to G, than from B to C, and sooner from B to E, than from B to F; but in falling from the same Point B to the Points D E F G C, the Degrees of Velocity acquired are all equal, tho' they be acquired in unequal Times. V. G. Suppose B C three Times longer than B D, the Body will go from B to D in the third part of the Time that it goes in the Plane of B C from B to C; but the Velocity acquired in the descending from B to D, is the same that is acquired in the descending from B to C, and therefore it will accelerate its Motion in the Line B D three Times safter than in the Line B C.

If a Body in falling from B to D acquire any Degree of Velocity, and with that Velocity be turned upwards, it will just ascend to the same Height from whence it came, and Gravity acting upon it will lessen continually its Velocity, in the same proportion it increased before in descending, and after it has come to the Point B it will immediately descend again: After the same manner, if having sallen along B D [Plate 3. Fig. 12.] it be turned up on the inclining Plane D C with that Velocity which it acquired in descending,

scending, it will just go to the same Height from whence it fell.

Fig. 14.] If a Body B hanging by the String A B down towards E, be moved from B to D, and from thence let fall, it will continually accelerate its Motion till it comes to the Point B or E; and then with all its Force it will go into the Arch B C to the Point C of the same Height with the Point D from which it fell, and then at the Point C it will descend to D, and there it will have the same Velocity as it had before at B, with which it will ascend to D and so make Vibrations continually. The Body so hung by a String is called a Pendulum. Suppose a Circle, whose Plane is I to the Horizon in which were drawn several small Subtenses B D, B E, BF from the lower-most Point B, [Plate 3d. Fig. 9th.] the Body will descend in the same Time along the Line. B D, from D to B, or along the Line F B, from F to B.

The Reason is this, tho' the Line F B is longer than the Line B D, yet it is also more L, or less inclined to the Horizon; and consequently the Body will accelerate its Motion faster upon the Line B F, than upon the Line B D; because small Arches

Arches do not differ much, either in Declivity or Length from their Chords. Bodies will very nearly descend in the same Arches of Circles, that they will do in the Chords of those Arches; but Bodies descend in the same Time thro' all those Chords, whether they be greater or lesser; and consequently the Vibrations of the same Pendulum, whether it run out in a greater Arch, or lef-

fer, are all performed in the same time.

Plate 3. Fig. 16.] Let A fall from 8, and B from 4, the Velocity with which A will be moved being so much greater than that of B, they will both meet equally at the Point C; the shorter the Strings are, the quicker are the Vibrations; because the String is as the half Diameter of the Circle; and so the less the String is, the lesser the Circle will be; and consequently the less the Circle is, the quicker the Body will be moved round it.

The Third LAW of NATURE, is, that A-ction and Re-action are always Equal and Contrary, i. e. the Actions of Bodies one upon another, are equal, and the Force imprest is always directed towards contrary Parts; so that the Mutation of Motions

Motions, which those Actions produce are equal. This Law will be illustrated by several Exam-

ples: First, if the Body A moving towards C, meet with Bat Rest, whatever Motion the Body B gets by the Impulse, so much precisely will the Body A lose. V. G. If the Body A have twelve Degrees of Motion, and after the Impulse B have five, then A will have but seven remaining; and therefore there will be equal Mutations of Motion in both, and the Effect will be the same, as if a Force equivalent to five Degrees of Motion acted upon A towards C, contrareto its former Motion, and another equal to it acted upon B impelling it towards C; and univerfally when one Body hits another, the Stroke or Blow is equally received in both. and it is always proportionable to the Motion Jost in Percutient Bodies. If an Horse draws a Stone which is tied to a String, the Force by which the Horse is pulback towards the Stone, is equal to the Force by which the Stone is drain towards the Horse; for the Rope being equally stretched by the same Power it has to contract it felf, will put equally the Stone towards the Horse, and the Horse towards

towards the Stone; and therefore the Force of Attraction in the Horse and in the Stone are both equal; but seeing the Strength of the Horse is so great, and assisted by the Ground on which he stands, that he can resist the Attraction of the Rope, he will not in the least yield to the Attraction of the Rope, nor be pulled out of his Place; but the same Stone which has so great a Force of Resistance, will be drawn towards the Horse. If the Magnet or Load-Stone attract Iron, the Iron will likewise equally attract the Load-Stone; this may be seen if you hold the Iron in a fixed Point, and the Load-Stone hang in a Scale, or be suspended by a String. The same thing is true in all other Attraction.

Plate 3. Fig. 18.] Suppose two Boats A and B floating in the Water, and a Man in one of them. V. G. A, by the help of a Rope, pulls the Boat B towards him, and that by that Attraction not only the Boat B carries to A, but also the Boat will be equally drawn to B; so that the Quantity of Motion will be equal in both; and if the Boats be of the same bigness and weight, they will meet at E the Mid-way between A and B. But suppose B 10 Times greater than A, = then B

will have 10 Times less Velocity than A, and the Boats will meet not at E but at D, so that D G will be 10 Times longer than F G; if B is 1000 Times greater than A, they will meet at the Point D, which will be such, that G D will be 1000 Times greater than D F, and consequently it ought to have 1000 Times less Velocity, so as to make the Momentum equal in both. If B be vastly greater than A, its Velocity will be vastly less, and altogether insensible. If a Man in A by the help of a Pole, thrust the Boat B from him towards H, by that thrusting the Boat B forward, the Boat A will be thrust backwards towards K.

So that that there will be equal Quantities of Motion in both towards contrary Parts; and therefore if B is 10 Times greater than A, B will move towards H with 10 Times less Velocity than A; which moves the contrary way towards K, so that the Quantities of Motion in both are equal. If B is immensely bigger than A, its Velocity will be less than A's in the same proportion, and consequently its Velocity will be altogether insensible in respect of A's, and may be reputed

as none.

Fig. 17. Plate 3d. And therefore if a Man in a Boat thrust the Earth or Shore from him, the Boat by this thrusting will recede from the Shore; for the Shore may be considered as a prodigious great Body in respect of the Boat, and consequently its Velocity will vanish and be equivalent to nothing. When a Boat is rowed with Oars, the Water by the Motion of the Oars is repulsed back to C, and therefore will re-act upon the Oars, and give to the Boat, to which they are fixed, a Motion towards D; and it is only upon this Account that the Boat advances forwards; for if there was no Re-action, and the Water by being thrust back did not give the Boat a Motion forwards, they must stand still, because there would be no Cause for its Motion; but now fince the Water re-acts upon the Oars, it communicates by its Re-action, as much Motion to the Boat forward, as the Oar did to the Water backward.

Since Swimming is nothing but Rowing with our Hands and Feet, we may easily understand the Reason why by this Motion of our Hands and Feet we advance forwards; for when the Water is thrust backward, it by Re-action will repel the Swimmer forward. Likewise when by the Motion

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of our Hands we thrust the Water down, it will

by Re-action force us upwards.

And the same thing is to be applied to the Flying of Birds, which is nothing else but Swimming in the Air. The general Rules that all Bodies observe in their Motion, is this: The Sum of their Motions towards the same Part, (which is known by taking the Sums when the Bodies move the same way, and the Difference when they move contraryways) remains the same always before and

after the mutual Impulse.

BODIES that have no Elasticity after their Congress, move together without any Separation towards the same Side where was most Motion; and because the Sum of their Motions is always the same before and after Percussion, if we take the Sum and divide it by the Quantity of Matter or Weight of the Badies, the Quotient will give their common Celerity with which they will move after their Conjunction. Suppose A B equal each, for Ex. to a Body of sive Pounds; and suppose B at rest, and A to move towards it with sour Degrees of Velacity; because B has no Motion, the Sum of their Motions will be four times Five, or Twenty, which being divided by the Sum of their Weight

Weight (viz.) Ten, their Quotient Two will be their common Velocity after Conjunction: So that if one Body move directly upon another, equal to it which is at rest, after their Conjunction they will go together with half their former Velocity. If A and B were equal, and B moved according to the same Direction with A, but with less Velocity after their Conjunction, they will both go together with half the Sum of their Velocities. Suppose A's Velocity Eight, and B's Six after Impulse, the Velocity of each will be One; if B moved by a contrary Direction with less Motion than A has, then if the Bodies be equal they will move together with half their Difference after meeting; but univerfally their Velocities are determined by taking the Difference of their Motions, which is the Sum of their Motions towards the same Direction, and dividing it by the Sum of the Bodies. Suppose A to be ten Pounds and B to be fix, let A's Velocity be Five, and B's Three, the Difference of their Motion is Thirty-two, which being divided by Sixteen the Sum of the Bodies, the Quotient Two is the common Velocity after meeting. If A and B moving contrary Ways, have equal Quantities of Motion, after Concourse they will both rest; for K 2

in this the Difference of their Motions being nothing, after meeting they can have no Motion. As for Example, suppose A ten Pounds and B Eight Pounds; let A's Velocity be Four and B's Five, in this Case the Motion in each will be Forty, there being no Difference of Motions, the two equal and contrary Forces acting one upon another will destroy one another's Motion; and therefore Des Cartes's Law of Motion is false, by which he said, There was always the same Quantity of Motion preserved in the World.

If there was no Elasticity, the former Laws would serve for all Bodies; but by Reason there are sew Bodies but what are Elastick, the Rules of commonMotion are sometimes very different from these already given; for by the Force of Elasticity of Bodies, sometimes they move after Percussion, and according to the same Direction, and sometimes

they go in contrary Direction, about not

That we may explain the Cause of Resilition and Separation of Bodies, we may illustrate it by an Example thus. [Plate 3. Fig. 15.] Let A B represent a Silken-Thread, or Cats-Gut, stretched and strongly extended upon the Table by the help of two Nails. If the Thread taken by the middle Point

Point and moved out of it's Place, so that the Point D comes to C, and the Thread lye in the Position A C B, and then left to its self, it will immediately with Force go to restore its self to its former Position. Now by the continually acting of this elastick Force, by which it endeavours to restore it self, it will continually increase its Velocity just as heavy Bodies do; and when it comes to the Point, it will have a Force to go on forward, equal to that by which it was forced out of its Position, by which Motion it will go on till it comes into the Position A E B, and then it will restore it self again, and perform Vibrations just as in a Pendulum.

Now let us suppose a Body, as D [Plate 3d. Fig. 15.] to run from F upon the Thread AB, the Thread by this Force will be put out of its Position AB into the Position AEB, where it will quickly stop the Motion of the Body D: Now the Motion of the Body D being destroyed, the Thread by its elastick Force endeavouring to restore it self will return to its former Position, with the same Force by which it was put out of it, and will bring back the Body D again with it; and when it comes to the Position ADB, it will have

the same Force to go forwards towards F, as it had when it was put out of its Position first. But when it was put out of its Polition first, it had all the Force of the Body D impressed on it; for all that Force was spent in bending the Thread: Therefore it will restore it self with all that Force, and consequently drive the Body D backwards by the fame with which it came upon it. The Body D having then once got an Impulse backwards, equal to what it had at first forwards, will by the First Law of Nature always continue in that Motion, and therefore will be reflected with the same Velocity it had at first forward; if the Thread does not restore it felf with the same Force with which it was bended. the Body will not be reflected with the Velocity equal to what it had at first. [Plate 3. Fig. 13.] If the Body runs sloping upon the Thread, the Reflection will be oblique, so that the incident Angle B be equal to the reflected Angle C. If instead of the Thread there was placed an Elastick Body, and suppose its Surface bended in by the Force of the Stroke from the Position at D B, into the Polition A C B, as foon as ever the Force of the Stroke ceases, the Surface A C D by the Force of Elasticity will be restored into its former Position:

tion; and by all the Force by which it restores it self, it will act upon the Body F and make it move back again. Now if the Body be a perfect Elastick Body, it will restore it self with the same Force with which it was compressed, and therefore it will make the Body F recede from it with the same Velocity with which at first it advanced towards it.

Now that all Reflecting Bodies, as Glass, Ivory, Marble, &c. are Elastick, may be easily concluded from the Sound and Tingling which they give when they are struck; just as in a Silken or Lute-String, when it is stretched and struck, they produce an Undulation in the Air, caused by frequent Vibrations, after the same manner, but not so lasting; but it may be more easily proved from the Concourse of Glass or Marble Spheres: For if you tinge one with any Colour, and let the other fall upon it, the Percutient Body will have a greater Portion of its Surface tinged, than that in which it touches; and therefore by the Stroke it must be somewhat flatned, tho' afterwards it restores it self again. Bodies that are perfectly El'aftick recede from one another after Impulse with the same Velocity as before they struck, or they approached one another; or which is the same thing, their

their relative Velocity before and after their mutual Percussion abides the same. The Reason is this: Bodies recede from each other only by their Elastick Force, by which they restore themselves to their first Figure; but that Force is equal to the Force of the Stroke by which the Figures were changed, and the Stroke is always in the Proportion of the Velocity by which they approached one another: And therefore the same Force will make them recede from each other with the same Force as they before came to each other. If the Bodies move towards contrary Directions, the Force of their Stroke is as their relative Velocity, which is equal to the Sum of both their Velocities; but if they go on in the same Direction, the Force of the Stroke which is still as the relative Velocity, will be likewise as the Difference of their absolute Velocities; for the relative Velocities are always as the Difference or Sum of their real Velocities, according as Bodies move in contrary or the fame Directions.

From this Property of perfect Elastick Bodies, and the universal Law of Motion, that the Sum of their Motions towards the same Direction always remain the same, 'tis easy to determine the Velo-

Velocity of each of the Elastick Bodies after Percussion.

The Rules which they observe, are these

following.

1. If a perfect Elastick Body comes upon another equal to it, and at rest, after Percussion, the Percutient will stand still, and the other will go for-

ward with all the Velocity of the Percutient.

2. If two equal Elastick Bodies move according to the same Direction, after Concourse they will change their Velocities one with another, and the Antecedent will have the Velocity of the Consequent, and the Consequent of the Antecedent.

3. If two equal Bodies move contrary after meeting, they will both reflect and change their Velo-

cities one with another.

4. If a little Elastick Body comes upon a greater which is at rest, the inpingent Body will be reflected, and the other will go forward with a Motion equal to both the Motion of the Inpingent forwards before the Impulse, and its Motion backward after.

5. If the greater Body comes upon the lesser, they will both move after the Stroke in the same Di-

rection.

Those

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Those that understand Algebra, may easily Calculate the Velocity of all sorts of Elastick Bodies after their Mutual Congress.

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HYDROSTATICKS.

DEFINITIONS.

Fluid is a Body, whose Parts yield to any Force impressed, and by yielding are easily put in Motion.

2. A Solid is a Body, whose Parts are so connected, as not to be divided withuot a determinate Force.

By Solidity, we don't mean that Property of Bodies, whereby they resist Penetration; but the Coherence of the Parts, by which they endeavour not to be separated. Monsr. Ozanam's Definition of a Fluid and a Liquid are these. A Fluid is a Body which is easily passed through, and whose separated Parts join again immediately; as Air, Flame, Water, Oil, \$\mathbb{Z}\$, and other Liquors. A Liquid is a Fluid, which being in a sufficient Quantity, slows continually

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continually and spreads it self below the Air, till its upper Surface is Level, or in a horizontal Position.

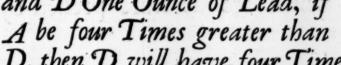
3. Gravity is that Force which pushes Bodies downwards.

4. One Body is said to be Intensely or Specifically heavier than another, when it has more Weight and the same Bulk, or as much Weight and a less Bulk.

Let Abe an Inch of Wood, and B an Inch of

Lead; if B weighs Four Ounces and A One Ounce, B will have Four Times more Specifick Gravity than A.

Let A be One Ounce of Wood and D One Ounce of Lead, if



D, then D will have four Times the Specifick Gravity of A; for there is a reciprocal Proportion between the Bulk and Specifick Gravity of aquiponderous Bodies.

Prop. I.

Both the Superior and Inferior Parts of any heavy Fluid are heavy, and the Superior press the Inferior by their Gravity.

Plate 3. Fig. 19. E T a Fluid be put in the Vessel A B C D, I say all its Parts are heavy, and that the Superior Parts A E F D press the Inserior; for since the whole Fluid is heavy by the Hypothesis, and the Parts partake of the Nature of the whole, it appears that all the Parts are heavy; wherefore since Gravity is that Force which pushes Bodies downwards, it appears also that this Force is exercised on the inserior Parts of the Fluid, which are therefore pressed by the Superior.

COROLL.

From hence it follows, that the Pressure on any Part of a Fluid is always according to the Height of the incumbent Fluid; for the Supersicies E F is pressed by A E F D, and the Supersicies G H by A G H D, whose Weights or Pressures are as A G.

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EXPERIMENT.

Take a Glass Bubble, and having by Heat expelled some of the Air out of it, immediately Seal it Hermetically: When it is cool tye it to a Balance, and add so much Weight to it as will make it sink; then put Weights in the other Scale to keep it from sinking; then break off a Piece of the long Neck of the Bubble, within the Water, so that the Water may run in, and you will find that the Weight in the other Scale will not keep the Balance even; whereas if the Water within the Bubble did not weigh, the whole would still be kept in Aquilibrio, because according to that Supposition, there is no Addition of Matter that weighs.

Hence it is plain, that Water weighs in Wa-

ter.

This Experiment refers to Cor. Prop. I.

On this Principle are founded all Water-works and Fountains; according to the Height of their Reservatories, so high will the Water rise. V. G. If the Reservatory be Twenty Foot, the spouted Water will rise Twenty Foot, allowing for the Resistance of Air.

Plate

Plate 3d. Fig. 25.] If you tap a Barrel full of Water at several Places, the highest will spout out the least Way, because its Height from the Surface is the least, and consequently the Presfure is the least; that which is lowest will spout farthest, because farther from the Surface, and therefore the greater Pressure will be upon it. But this must be understood if the Barrel be a sufficient Height above the Plane on which it spouts, as in the Fig. 25. Plate 3d. for if the Barrel should lye upon an horizontal Plane, the Liquor which comes out at the Middle of the Veisel would spout farthest; because, tho' the Liquor comes out at Bottom with the greatest Velocity, the Plane would intercept it at a less Distance from the Barrel, than if the Barrel was higher. In such a Case the Liquor spouting from an Hole, as near the Level of the Surface of the Liquor in the Barrel, as the Distance of the lowest Hole from the Level of the Plane on which it is to spout, will fall on the Plane in the same Place as the Liquor that comes out at the lowest Hole.

Plate 3d. Fig. 26.] If the Spout of a Barrel be turned upwards, the Water will rife as high out

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of it, up to the Height of the Water in the Barrel, viz. to A; and as the Water sinks so will the spouted Water without sink too.

Prop. II.

In any Fluid [Fig. 19. Plate 3d.] as ABCD, not only the Parts are pressed downwards, but there is also a lateral Pressure, and a Pressure from all Parts.

For when, a Fluid is pressed from all Sides, it endeavours to recede from that Pressure; from whence that Force of receding will press all circumjacent Bodies, whether Fluid or Hard. V. G. Let a Drop of Water [Fig. 22.] as a be pressed by the Finger D upon the Plane B C, it will not only press the Plane B C, but endeavour to recede towards the Parts B and C; and if there be any Body as F, which hinders its Motion, it appears that that Body is pressed with all that Force by which it endeavours to recede towards B. After the same manner in the Fluid [Fig. 20.] A B C D let any Part be affigned as E, which by the foregoing Prop. is prest by the upper Part G, and endeavours to recede towards the Parts F K, therefore

fore it must needs be that it presses F and K with all that Force by which it recedes towards these Parts ABCD.

COROLL.

Hence the lateral Pressure is according to the Height of the incumbent Fluid.

SCHOLIUM.

Hence it's easily understood why Flasks well stopt, and only full of Air, being let down into the Sea (by some Weight tied to them) are broken, viz. by the great Weight of the incumbent Water, which neither the Soundness of the Flasks, nor the included Air is able to resist.

EXPERIMENT.

If you immerge a Glass Tube in Water, and stop the open End [Fig. 24. Plate 3d.] with your Finger, to hinder the Water from falling out of it again, and immediately take the Tube of Water and put it a pretty way into a Vessel of Oil, so that the upper-most Surface of the Water may be

below the Surface of the Oil, the Oil will force the Water up; for the Oil at EF being more pressed by the Columns of Oil G and H, than it is by the incumbent Water at M, will be forced upwards, and it will make the Water at M to ascend, till the Fluid in the Tube presses as much on the Surface M as the Oil at GH does on the Surface E F.

Now because Water is heavier than Oil, the Water in the Tube will not rise so high as the Surface of the Oil, for the Water being heavier, a Column of a less Height will press as much on M as the Columns G H press on E F.

Hence we see that a lighter Fluid may press on one that is heavier.

Prop. III.

Fig. 20. Plate 3.] If all the Parts FEK of an homogeneous Fluid, as ABCD, which lye under the same horizontal Plane, are equally presented; from such a Pressure there arises no Motion, for when the Pressure is equal on all the Parts, they all will press each other with an equal Force; wherefore no one Part will yield to another,

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ther, but the under Fluid powerfully assisted by the Bottom of the Vessel, resists their Pressure downwards; therefore, from such a Pressure there arises no Motion.

COROLL.

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Hence also the Parts of an homogeneous Fluid are at rest, and not moved by any intestine Motion; for since all the Parts equally resist, one Part will not yield to another, and therefore are not moved. Contrary to Des Cartes's Opinion, who held, that Fluidity consists in a continual and various Motion of the Parts.

Prop. IV.

Plate 3. Fig. 20.] If any Part as E, of the Fluid A B C D is more pressed than the rest, it will drive both the Parts under it, and those on every Side (a latere) out of their Places. For if the Parts of a Fluid easily yield to any Force impressed (by Def. 1.) it appears that the Parts F G which are next to E, will give place to it pressing with a greater Force, from whence E slows into their Places K E D.

EXPERIMENT.

Fig. 23. Plate 3d.] Fill a Tube with Oil, and immerge the Bottom a little way in a Vessel of Water, (the top of the Tube being kept stopt with your Finger) so that it stand a good way above the Surface, as at n, then the Water at m being pressed by a high Column, will be more strongly pressed by the incumbent Oil, than E and F are by the incumbent Water; consequently it will (after your Finger is removed from the top of the Tube) thrust the Water at E and F out of its Place to give the Oil liberty to descend, and then you will see the Oil come out of the Tube in Drops, and then mixing with the Water it will ascend and swim on the top.

Prop. V.

Plate 3d. Fig. 20.] If the Parts E of the Fluid A B C D be less press'd than the rest, the Parts next to it as F G K being more pressed, will thrust it away and possess its room, and the Part E will rise until the Pressure of the Parts next to it be equal to its own Pressure.

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For

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For, fince the Part E being less pressed, cannot resist the rest pressing stronger, it will yield to them by the 1. Def. and that always till it come to such a Place, where the Pressure of the Parts next to it be equal to its own Pressure, where, by the 3d Prop. it will rest; but if it be a Fluid, and it happen that it rests not under the Superficies, it will spread it self all over the upper Superficies.

COROLL.

Hence if the Parts of a Fluid are in Aquilibrio, they are all equally pressed under the same horizontal Planes.

EXPERIMENT.

Fig. 24 Plate 3.] Take a Tube and fill it a little way with Oil, and stop it as before, the Oil will still remain in the Tube (being kept there by the Pressure of the Air) immediately immerge the Tube in Water (which may be tinged with Cocheneal for the better Distinction) a good way below the Surface of the Oil, then take off your Finger, and you will immediately see the Water thrust up the Oil above the Surface. The Reason is this: Suppose the Oil

in the Tube only to reach to c, then the Surface of the Water at g being only pressed with the Column of Oil cg, and the Water at S and R being pressed with higher Columns d S, b R the Parts of the Fluid at S and R, being more pressed than the Parts g, will thrust g out of its place, and make it ascend in the Tube, and press upon the Oil which will continually rife, till when it is at a the Oil and Water in the Tube press as much upon g, as the Columns dS, bR do upon SR. Now, because the Oil is lighter than Water, the Column of Oil which presses as much on the Surface g, as a Column of Water would do, must be higher than the Column of Water; and therefore the Oil will rise higher than the Surface of the Water to-a...

If we try this Experiment with Water in Oil, the Water in the Tube will be below the Surface of the Oil, as at G H, so much as it is specifically heavier. Hence we see a higher Fluid may press on one that is heavier.

The same will hold if a Solid press upon the Fluid; nay, even Lead may be made to swim in the following Manner. Take a Cylindrical Glass open at both Ends, and ground at Bottom; then holding

holding a smooth Weight of Lead close to the ground End of the Glass (with wet or oiled Leather upon the Lead, that no Water may get into the Glass betwixt it and the Lead) plunge the whole in Water till the Depth of the Lead in the Water be about twelve times its Thickness, or fomething more, and the Water will keep the Lead from finking; pushing against it by a Force equal to the Excess by which the Water (which is by the Vessel hindered from pressing immediately under the Lead) exceed the weight of the Lead. But if the Vessel be raised till the Lead be but nine or ten times its Thickness below the upper Surface of the Water, the Lead will leave the Glass and fink down, moving as it leaves the Glass with a Force equal to the Excess, by which it exceeds the Water that it keeps out from pressing immediately under the Lead; because a Pillar of Water of the Diameter of the Lead ought to be twelve times its Thickness, to be equal to it in Weight. Thus will any Metal be made to swim, if they are funk in the Water something deeper than as many times their Thickness, as they are specifically heavier than Water; always supposing the Glass to hinder the Water from coming in to fink above them.

them. As for Ex. Brass, Copper, Gold, Antimony, Iron, will swim if plunged above 8, 9, 18, 4, and 7 times their Thickness, because they are about 8, 9, 18, 4, and 7 times specifically heavier than Water.

This Experiment will serve to illustrate the 2d and 4th Propositions.

Prop. VI.

Plate 3. Fig. 21.] Let ABCD be a Vessel of such a Figure, as that its Basis CD be greater than its upper Superficies AB. I say that a Fluid contained in such a Vessel presses the Basis CD as much as a Prism or Cylinder ECDF, whose Basis is CD, and Height EC, equal to the Basis and Height of the Vessel ABCD, would press it; for since by the Coroll. of the 5th Proposition all the Parts of a Fluid comprehended under the same horizontal Planes, are equally pressed; it appears that the Parts at CN and DM are pressed as much as the Parts at MN, but the Parts at MN are pressed by the Prism or Cylinder ABMN, from whence it appears, that the Parts at CN and DM are as much pressed as the Prism or Column

ECNADMB would press them; wherefore CD is pressed as much as it would be if the Fluid ECDF lay upon it.

COROLL.

Hence since Weight is as Pressure, it manifestly appears that the Basis C D sustains the same Weight, which it would if pressed by E C D F, which (tho it seems a Paradox) this Experiment confirms.

EXPERIMENT.

Plate 4. Fig. 1.] Let ABC D be a Cylinder of Brass, exactly filled with a moveable Basis, so exactly contrived that no Water may run out between it and the Side of the Cylinder; let a be a long Brass Tube continued to the top of the Cylinder; let a Rope that is tied to one End of the Balance, and runs thro' the Tube, be fixed to the Middle of the Basis at a, then pouring Water in at E, so as to fill the Cylinder at AB, see what Weight in the Scale K will be required to move or raise the Basis a pressed by a Column of Water ABCD. As for Ex. Suppose Ten Pounds after this fill the Tube with Water up to the top, which

which if it be three Times longer than the Cylinder, you will find that there will be need of three Times more Weight to raise the Basis, than when it was press'd by only the Column of Water ABCD; whereas it was then raised by ten Pounds, it will not now be raised by less than forty, which will be the Weight of a Column of Water, whose Basis is equal to the Basis G; and whose Height is equal to that of the Tube and Cylinder, viz. GCDH. There are several ways of proving this Paradox.

Horse-Hair is reckoned to be a Body that comes nearest the Specifick Gravity of Water.

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Plate 4. Fig. 2.] If in a Fluid, as ABCD be let down a Body E, having a Specifick Gravity equal to that of the Fluid, the Body will be all covered in the Fluid, and will retain any given Position.

For if any Part of it as E should remain above the Superficies of the Fluid, that Part of the Fluid, viz. which is under the Body E would have a greater Pressure than the Parts I and K, which are only pressed by the incumbent Fluid. For the

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immersed Part of the Body E presses H of it self, as much as the Fluid in its room would do; so that the Part which is out of the Water added to the Pressure, will force the Part H of the Fluid out of its Place, by the 4th Prop. therefore the Body E will descend and be all immersed; and therefore, as in Fig. 9th. when the Body has an intense Gravity, equal with that of the Fluid, both the Parts under the Body, and those under the Fluid in the same horizontal Plane, are equally press'd; so that by the 3d Prop. there arises no Motion from such a Pressure: And since the same Reason holds good in every Position of the Body, it is manifest that it retains any one that is given it, K E D.

Prop. VIII.

Plate 4. Fig. 9.] If in a Fluid, as A BCD be immersed any Body as E, specifically heavier than the Fluid, the Body will descend to the Bottom, but with a Force equal to the Excess by which the Gravity of the Body exceeds the Gravity of so much of the Fluid as is equal to it in Bulk.

For if the Body and the Fluid were both of the same Specifick Gravity, the Body would not descend

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descend by the 7th Prop. But when it is heavier than the Fluid, the Parts H under the Body are pressed stronger than those under the Fluid; wherefore by the Excess of that Pressure, the Parts H will be thrust out of their Places, therefore by the same Excess E will descend K E D.

COROLL. I.

A Body immersed in a Fluid loses as much of its Gravity as is the weight of a Portion of the Fluid, equal to it in Bulk; for Gravity is a Force which pushes a Body downward. Now since a Body descends with that Force only, by which it exceeds the Gravity of an equal Bulk of the Fluid, it appears that it gravitates in Water with this Force alone.

EXPERIMENT.

Weigh a piece of Lead in the Air, suppose twelve Pounds; and afterwards weigh it in the Water, and find how much it loses of its weight, suppose 17 Oz. Observe also how high the Lead raises the Water when put into it, then take out the Lead and put in 17 Oz. of Water, and you will find that the Water added will rise as high in N 2

the Vessel as the Lead raised it before; and therefore the Weight that a Body loses in the Water, is just equal to the Weight of as much Water as is equal to the Body in Bulk; what Weight the Body loses the Water gets. For Ex. Suppose a Vessel of Water weigh ten Pounds; if we hang a twelve Pounds Weight in that Vessel by a String, so that it may touch neither Bottom nor Sides, the Vessel of Water will weigh ten Pounds and seventeen Ounces, which is just the Weight that the Lead of twelve Pounds loses, and what the Lead loses the Body gains.

CO-ROLL. VIZ. O sil bosoks

Two Bodies which are of different Specifick Gravity, as Gold and Silver, Aquiponderous in Air, or rather in vacuo, being immeried in a Fluid, that which is of the greatest Specifick Gravity will preponderate. For since every Body immerfed in Water loses of its Gravity, as much as is the Gravity of a Portion of the Fluid, equal to it in Bulk; it appears that that which takes up the least room, that is, that which is specifically heavier, loses less of its Gravity, and so preponderates.

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EXPERIMENT.

Take a Crown-Piece of Silver, and a Piece of Lead of the same weight; when they are weighed in the Air, afterwards weigh them in the Water, and the Lead will preponderate.

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Bodies are easier listed up in Water than in Air.

Profine of as much of the Fluid as would be

Hence the Weight of any Fluid is easily found, viz. by immersing a Cubical Foot of Lead into it, and its Difference between its Weight in the Fluid, and its Weight in vacuo, is the Weight of the Fluid.

If will be to the uXI .qorq e Specifich Gravity of the Body to the Specific Gravity of the Fluid.

Plate 4. Fig. 3.] If in a Fluid as ABCD, the Body specifically lighter than the Fluid be immersed, it will not be covered, only so much of it as is equal to a Portion of the Fluid, which is as heavy as the whole Body.

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For if the whole should be immersed, it appears that the Parts of the Fluid under it, are less pressed than those under the same horizontal Plane are by the incumbent Fluid; because the Gravity of the Body E is less than the Gravity of an equal Bulk of the Fluid: Therefore by the 5th Prop. the Parts under E will rise till they come to such a Place, as where the Pressure of the Fluid A I K D is but equal to the Pressure of E, that is, when the Pressure of the Body E is equal to the Pressure of as much of the Fluid as would be put in the Place of the submersed Part.

CORDLL.

Hence fince the Specifick Gravities of Bodies are reciprocally as the Bulks of Acquiponderons ones; by the 4th Prop. the immersed Part of the Body E will be to the whole, as the Specifick Gravity of the Body to the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid.

COROLL. 2.

Therefore the Gravity of Bodies put in a Fluid is twofold; one True and Absolute, the other Relative and Apparent; by the first Sort of Gravity

vity the Parts of Fluid and of Solid Bodies, gravitate in their Places; therefore the Weights being joined, they compound a Weight of the whole. By Relative Gravity, Bodies do not gravitate in their Places, that is, they do not preponderate one another, but hindering each others Endeavour to defoend, they remain in their Places, as if they were not heavy; those things which are in the Air and do not preponderate, the common People do not think heavy, but those which do preponderate they esteem heavy, because they are not sustained by the weight of the Air. Common Weights are nothing else but the Excess of true Weights, above the weight of the Air; from whence also those things are commonly called light which are less heavy, and by yielding to the preponderant Air mounts upwards; they are comparatively light, not truly so, because they do descend in vacuo.

Thus also in Water Bodies which descend, or ascend by reason of their greater or less Gravity, are apparently and comparatively heavy or light; and their relative Gravity or Lightness is the Excess or Desect by which their true Weights exceed the Gravity of Water, or are extended by it.

Prop.

A

A Rettle is cold at Bottom when the Water boils, because warm Water being specifically lighter than Cold, the cold Water will descend to the Bottom.

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The immersed Parts of unequal Bodies of the same Specifick Gravity in a Fluid heavier than themselves, are to each other as the wholes.

think heavy, but those which do preponderate they esteem heart. L. L. O. R. O. D. not sustained

The immersed Parts of equal Bodies having different Specifick Gravities, are to each other as their Specifick Gravities.

EXPERIMENT.

Take a piece of Wood and weigh it, then sink it in a Vessel as far as it will go with its own Gravity, and observe how high it rises the Water in the Vessel; having taken out the Wood, pour as much Water in the Vessel as is equal to the weight of the Wood, and this will rise up to the same Surface that the Water did before the Wood was in.

Prop. X.

Plate 4. Fig. 4 and 5.] If the same Body E be immerse in different Fluids, heavier than it self, the immersed Part will be reciprocally as the Speci-

fick Gravities of the Fluids.

For the immersed part of the Body E in the Fluid ABCD is to the whole, (by Cor. 1. Prop. 8.) as the Specifick Gravity of the Body to the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid, and the whole is the immersed part in the Fluid a B c d, as the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid to the Specifick Gravity of the Body; wherefore by 23 of El. 5. the immersed Part in ABCD will be to the immersed Part in a B c d, as the Gravity of the Fluid to a B c d to the Gravity of the Fluid A B C D K FD.

Hence appears a Method of finding out, whether any Quantity of Salt is contained in Water, by the Assistance of an Instrument made in Glass, represented in Fig. 20. Plate 2d. And since Saltwater is heavier than Fresh; find first how deep the Instrument finks in Fresh-water, and if in trying other Water it is Iess immersed, it's certain

that

that Salt is contained in it, as being heavier, and by how much the less it is immersed, by so much the more the Salt is in the Water.

The Excellency of Liquors as Wine, for Instance, is found out by the same Instrument; for by how much the lighter such Liquors are, they are commonly esteemed so much the better; but their Gravity is found out after the same manner.

Prop. XI.

To find what Relation the Specifick Gravity of a Fluid and a Body given, unmersed in it, have to each other.

In the first place, suppose the Body to be specifically heavier than the Fluid, and let its Weight be found in Vacuo, and then put it in the Fluid: As the Weight of the Body will be to the Excess (by which the same Body weighed out of the Fluid, exceeds its own Weight in the Fluid) so the Specifick Gravity of the Body will be to the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid. For the Specifick Gravity of Bodies equal in Bulk, are as their Weights; but the Weight of a Portion of the Fluid equal in Bulk to the Body it self, by Cor. I. Prop. 8. is that

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that Difference of the Weight; therefore these being given, the Relation between the Specifick Gravities of the Body and the Fluid will be given also.

But if the Body immersed be specifically lighter than the Fluid, the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid will be to the Specifick Gravity of the Body, as the whole Body to the immersed Part of it, by Cor. 1. Prop. 9.

Prop. XII.

Plate 2. Fig. 18.] The Solid Bodies as A and B being given, to find that Relation their Specifick

Gravities bear to each other.

Let the Relation of the Specifick Gravity A to the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid D, be found by the former *Prop.* and let the Relation of the Specifick Gravity of the Fluid D to the Specifick Gravity of the Solid B be found also; from whence by 20. *El.* 5. the Relation of the Specifick Gravity of the Solid A to that of the Solid B will be given.

Prop. XIII.

Plate 4. Fig. 6.] If upon the Fluid ABCD, another Fluid as E ADF be poured specifically O 2 higher

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higher than the former, it will not be immersed in the Fluid, yet it will press its Superficies by

its Gravity.

For fince the Fluid A B C D is specifically heavier than the Fluid E A D, its Force of tending downwards will not be exceeded by the Force of the Fluid E A D F; wherefore the Fluid E A D F cannot descend below A B C D; yet since it is heavy, it is manifest that it presses the Superficies A D with its Gravity:

COROLL. I.

Hence the Pressure of any Fluid poured in, supposing it to be Homogeneous, and of the same Density every where, is always according to its Height.

COROLL. 2.

By how much specifically heavier the Fluid is, by so much the greater is its Pressure.

COROLL. 3.

The Superficies of every Fluid is pressed by Air.

Prop.

Prop. XIV.

Plate 4. Fig. 7.] If the Superficies of the Fluid A B C D be pressed by an incumbent Fluid, but the Part G freed from the Pressure (which may be done by the Assistance of a Tube, as lmno, the Fluid G will rise above the Superficies A mDn, and that to such an Height, as that the Superficies mn may be press'd with as great a Force as nm Dn; that is, it will rise up to nm pq. For since the Parts nm pq of the Fluid are less pressed than the rest, it will rise by the nm pressed with as great a Force as nm and nm be pressed with as great a Force as nm and nm be pressed with as great a Force as nm and nm under the same horizontal Plane.

COROLL. I.

Hence the Fluid mnpq which ascends, has as much Gravity as the Quantity mnrs of the Fluid EFAD would have of the same Height as EA and FD.

COROLL. 2.

Therefore the Specifick Gravity of Fluids are reciprocally to each other as the Bulk of the ascen-

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ascended Fluid as p m n q to the Bulk n m r s, or when these two Bodies have equal Bases reciprocally as their Heights.

SCHOLIUM.

Since Air presses the Superficies of all Fluids by its Gravity, by Cor. 3. Prop. 13. If any Part should be free from the Pressure, it is manifest from the foregoing Prop. that the Fluid will ascend above that Superficies which is not pressed with the Air, until it press the Superficies under it, with as much Force as the rest of the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air, and the Superficies is pressed by the incumbent Air and the Superficies is pressed by the superficies in the superficies is the superficies in the superficie

And this Prop. is of very great use in Hydro-staticks, for by its Assistance all the Phanomena of Nature that used to be attributed to the Abhorrence of a Vacuum are easily explained. Nay, many things are drawn from it for the necessary Uses of Life, as Syringes, Pipes, and other such like Machines. But before we treat of these things, it will not be amiss to speak a sew Words of the Torricellian Experiment, and to shew the Cause of it, from what has been above demonstrated.

EXPERIMENT.

Take a Vessel of Water, and immerse a Tube (open at both Ends) into it, then pour Oil upon the Water, to the Height of sour or five Inches, which will raise the Water in the Tube so high, that it may press as much on the Surface of the Water under it, as the Oil does on the rest of the Surface; let the same Experiment be tried with \$\frac{1}{2}\$ and Water. Vide Prop. 4. \$\frac{1}{2}\$. [Plate 2. Fig. 19.] Take a Drinking Glass, and turn it so in the Water, the Air being turned out; if the Glass be raised perpendicularly, the Water will ascend in it above the Surface of the stagmant Water, as at B.

The Air does not only gravitate on the Surface of Fluids, but also upon all Solid Bodies, as may be proved from the Cohesion of two flat Pieces of Glass or Marble exactly polished and ground together.

That this depends upon the Pressure of the Air is plainly evinced, by trying the Experiment in the Recipient of an Air-Pump; for after an Exsuction or two of Air the Marbles drop asunder.

Another

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Another Argument for the Pressure of the Air, may be taken from the Recipients sticking to the Plate upon which they are fixed so closely, that after two or three Exsuctions it requires a considerable Weight to pull it away.

ous to samuel out Prop. XV.

Plate 4. Fig. 8.] To shew the Torricellian Experiment and explain the Cause of it; let A D the horizontal Superficies of the Quick-Silver contained in the Vessel AD be exposed to the Presfure of the internal Air, and the Tube P C stopped at P and open at C, be filled with Quick-Silver ; after this turn it, and immerse its Orifice C under the Superficies of the Quick-Silver contained in the Vessel A D, keeping its Orifice C stopped with your Finger, until that it be so immersed that the Quick-Silver do not run out by turning the Tube; and then unstop it, holding it in that Position. Now Experiment makes manifest, that the Quick-Silver in the Tube CP will not descend below the Height of Twenty-seven or Twentyeight Inches; and if the length of the Tube be less than Twenty-seven or Twenty-eight Inches, the

the Quick-Silver will not descend at all, until its Height m c be Twenty-seven or Twenty-eight Inches (there being left within the Tube P m n, a Vacuum of Air and Quick-Silver) where it will remain. The Reason of this Experiment appears from the foregoing Prop. For since the Superficies of Quick-Silver AD, is pressed by the superincumbent Air, but its Part C is freed from that Pressure; it must needs be, that the Height of the Quick-Silver in the Tube CP be so great, as that the Superficies C sustain the same Pressure from the incumbent Quick-Silver, as the rest of the Quick-Silver does from the incumbent Air.

EXPERIMENT.

If we immerse the Tube thus filled, in Water instead of Mercury, the Mercury in the Tube will descend, and the Water will ascend to the

top of the Tube, per Prop. 4.

N.B. If we incline the Tube towards the Horizon, the \(\mathbb{Z}\) will rise higher, and always keep the the same \(\persigma\) beight; for in the inclined Position it does not press so much upon the subjectent \(\mathbb{Z}\) as on the rest, its Gravity acting purely against the Sides of the Tube.

?

To prove that this descends upon the Pressure of the Air, take a Glass Tube four or five Foot long, which has one End (instead of being sealed Hermetically) tied over with a piece of Bladder; fill it up with Water, and immerge it in stagnant Water, you will observe the Water not to descend at all; but if with a Pin you make an Hole in the Bladder, the Water will immediately descend quite out of the Tube.

COROLL. I

Hence a Cylinder of \$\mathbb{T}\$ of Twenty-seven or Twenty-eight Inches, gravitates as much as a Column of Air, whose Height reaches to the top of the Atmosphere, and whose Basis is the same as that of the Column of Quick-Silver.

EXPERIMENT.

We may increase the Weight of the Air by sinking the Barometer into another Fluid; to wit, put it into a long Cylindrical Glass, and afterwards pour Water on the Surface of the stagnant Mercury, and the & will still rise higher in the Tube, according as the Pressure of the Water increases.

About

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About fourteen Inches of Water upon the stagnant Quick-Silver will raise that which was in the Tube about one Inch, there being Fourteen to One between the Gravity of 2 and Water.

The Tube with & being put into a long Receiver, the & will fall down after the Air is pum-

ped out.

The same Experiment may be tried with Water in the Tube, but the Water will not subside so fast as the g did. And if in the Tube there be left a small Air-Bubble, this Bubble will expand it self and fill the whole Cavity of the Tube, even so much as to depress the Surface of the Water in the Tube, below the Surface of the stagnant Water.

COROLL. 2.

If Air were of the same Density at all Distances from the Earth, its Height could easily be found out; for as the Difference of the Height of the \$\beta\$ on the top of a Mountain, is to the Height of the \$\beta\$ at the bottom of the Mountain; so is the Height of the Mountain to the Height of the Air.

to renbo si dina.

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It is manifest that a Cylinder of Water of Thirty-two Foot gravitates as much upon a Fluid under it, as the Air does upon the other Parts of it; therefore Water can be sustained at such a Height by the Gravity of the Air.

SCHOLIUM.

I have said that \$\mathbb{g}\$ is sustained at Twenty-seven, or Twenty-eight Inches; for the Gravity of the Air is various and mutable; sometimes \$\mathbb{g}\$ will remain Twenty-seven Inches, sometimes Twenty-eight, and now and then it will ascend to Twenty-nine or Thirty Inches; from whence it must needs be that the Gravity of the Air is changed

proportionably to its Height.

By how much the heavier Air is, so much the easier can it sustain Vapours raised by the Heat of the Sun; for Vapours are nothing else but watery Particles rarified by the Heat of the Sun; and therefore the same Particle of Water taking up a greater Space, becomes specifically lighter than Air; from whence of Necessity that Particle must ascend until it come to the Air, whose Specifick Gravity is equal to its own, where it must rest; but the Gravity of the Air decreasing, it must needs

needs be that the Vapours will descend, which by the Resistance of the Air in their Motion, are formed into Drops of Water, from whence it cannot but Rain when the Gravity of the Air is lessened; but when its Gravity is increased the Force is also increased, by which it is able to sustain the Vapours, and that remaining the Air is clear. Hence it is that such a Tube filled with \$\mathbb{T}\$, and immersed within the Superficies of standing \$\mathbb{T}\$ is used to shew the Gravity of Air and fair Weather which follows from it.

Prop. XVI.

The Elastick Force of Air inclosed in a Vessel of the same Tenor with the ambient Air, performs as much as the Burthen of the open incumbent Air.

Let there be a Tube or a Vessel, having an open Orifice, by which there may be a Communication between the internal and external Air; if then the adjacent Parts of external Air, be less pressed than those which are within the Vessel, these will dilate themselves by the 5th Prop. until they come to an equal Force; but if the external adjacent Parts (by the Pressure of the incumbent

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bent Air) are more pressed than those within, those that are within will be compressed, untill their E-lastick Force is equivalent to the Force pressing from without.

This appears from Mr. Boyle's Experiments.

COROLL. I.

From this follows the Reason why we do not feel the Weight of the Air.

COROLL. 2.

From hence also we know why we do not feel the Weight of Water.

COROLL. 3.

Plate 4. Fig. 13.] Let CD be a Pipe or curved Tube open at both Ends, one of which, as C is immerfed in Water, or any other Fluid; the other as E, being longer than C from the Curve, hanging without the Fluid. If then by Sucking, the Liquor comes to E, until it runs out, it will continue running, altho' you do not suck it, till the Liquor in the Vessel be either all drawn out, or wants a due Height; yet upon this Condition, that

that the Orifice E be lower than the Superficies A B of the Liquor in the Vessel; for the Air being fuck'd out of the Tube into the Thorax, the Fluid under it is forced into the Pipe, by the Pressure of the external incumbent Air, by the preceeding Prop. therefore the Fluid will rife to the top D, until there is an Aquilibrium with the Pressure of the external Air (suppose the Height I G) that is, in g about Twenty-nine Inches, in Water about Thirty-three Foot, and so in other Liquors proportionably according to their Gravity, and will run out so soon as it finds a Passage, because the Water gravitates in the longer Tube; and the Reason why DE ought to be longer than DC, is, because if it were otherwise, both C and E would be pressed equally by the Atmosphere; if DE should be shorter, the Fluid would be carried contrary; but if D be higher than I, the Fluid will be forced upwards as far as I, but not farther.

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Take a Tube of this Shape, open at ABC, and having immersed the Ends B and C into two different small Vessels full of Water, put the whole into a Cylindrick Jar of Glass, then pouring in Oil of Turpentine up to D, above the bent Part of the Tube, and the Water

will run out of the Vessel A into the Vessel B, which shews that a competent Pressure of a lighter Fluid will make Water come over by a Syphon, even tho' the Air comes in at G; and this shews plainly that the Fuga Vacui has nothing to do in this Experiment and others of the like Nature.

EXPERIMENT.

Plate 6. Fig. 4.] Take a Receiver-Tube with the one End longer than the other, and pour Water in till it rises in both to the Height A; afterwards put your Finger on the Orifice A, and pour in Water at B, till it rise to the top; then put your Finger upon B, and leave the Orifice open, and the Water will not run out at A; but if you take off your Finger, the Liquor will run out at A till

till it has subsided in the Leg B down to the Le-

vel of the Orifice at A.

will rise the same Way, but not to the same Height, since it will rise no higher than in the common Baroscope; that is, sourteen times less than Water, it being sourteen times heavier. Frises but to Thirty Inches, Water to about Thirty-three Foot.

If the Romans had known that the Pressure of Air could raise Water to such an Height, they needed not to have been at the Trouble of Cutting thro' Mountains to make their Aquaducts level.

SCHOLIUM.

The ancient Philosophers ridiculously explained this by the Abhorrence of a Vacuum, in the place of which now deservedly succeeds the Æquilibrium of the Air. Galileus sirst thought of it, and Torricellius maintained and proved it.

North care C O R. 4.

Plate 4. Fig. 12.] The same thing holds good of the Pump, which is made of a long Piece of Timber cut Cylindrically within, and is immersed in

in the Well, the upper Part of which standing above the Superficies of the Water; which Water is not to be supposed free from the Pressure of the Air, but exposed to it (for otherwise the Water will not be thrust upwards) and at some Part of the Hollow of the Pump there is fixed a Piece of Wood across, in the Middle of which there is the Hole D, thro' which this Water ascends; and over this Hole there is a Value or Clack as E, so placed across, as to open or shut according to its being pressed from above or below; also a Bucket as FG, let down from above by the Rod or Handle (so fitted to the Sides of the hollow Cylinder, as that the Air can have no Passage between) which also hath a Hole in the Middle of its Bottom, and a Value G fitted to it, as hath D E. Things being thus ordered, while by moving the Handle the Bucket is drawn up (the Air being upon it, and by that means there will be a less pressure of Air upon the Water below the Bueket) the Water in the Well being pressed by the ambient Air will be forced up into the Hollow of the Pump through the Hole D (opening the Valve E) as far as the Bottom of the Bucket (provided it be not higher than I, the top of the Æqui-

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Acquilibrium) as being free from any Pressure from above, and thrust up from below; but on the contrary, by turning the Handle the other way, the Bucket is pressed down, and presses the Water immediately under it, which ascends thro' G'D; by this Depression E is shut and G opened, thro' which the Water having got above the Bucket, is drawn up with the Bucket; when it is drawn back (the Valve G being shut) and sinding Passage slows out at H, then Water rising again at D, succeeds as before in the place of the Bucket that is drawn up, and so continually.

Prop. XVII.

Concerning the Elasticity of the Air, and some

Effects depending upon it.

The Elastick Force of the Air is that by which a compressed Quantity of Air endeavours to expand it self into a greater Space; and since the Air at the Superficies of the Earth is much pressed by a great Weight of the incumbent Air, it must needs be that it will endeavour to recede from that Pressure every way, and rush into whatsoever Space it finds free from Pressure, where by

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its Elastick Force it will expand it self equally, and uniformly possess all the given Parts of this Space.

EXPERIMENT.

Let a Bubble filled with Air of the same Tenor with the outward Air, be Hermetrically Sealed, then heat it at the Flame of a Lamp, and the Air being expanded by Heat will burst the Bubble.

If any Elastick Body be compressed by a superincumbent Weight, it will endeavour to expand it self equally on all Sides by its Elastick Force; and so equally push the Weight upwards, and the Table by which it is sustained downwards.

Plate 6. Fig. 16.] But if instead of the Weight be put any thing that may resist the retributive Force of the Body, then the Elastick Body will endeavour to expand it self after the same manner which it did at first, and so will push the Table by which it is sustained with the same Force also as at first; as also the thing which resists it, tho' in vain. See the Worm-Spring in the Figure.

By

By how much the more an Elastick Body is expanded that resisteth any Compression, by so much the less will its resistive Force be, and so on the contrary; and therefore that Force is always equivalent to the Power that compresses it. Therefore the Density of the Air is always as the Force pressing it; so that since the Air within is retained in its Density by the Weight of the superincumbent Air, if a double Weight be applyed, it will become twice as thick, and be compressed in half the Space: If it be compressed with thrice the Force, it will be forced into three times less Space; so likewise if half of the incumbent Air be taken away, the compressed Air will expand it self into twice the Space it had whilst compressed, &c.

Hence since Air contained within the Walls of an House, is of the same Density with the external Air with which it communicates, it will endeavour to relax it self equally with the external Air, and will press the Superficies of Fluids with the same Force as if those Fluids were immediately exposed to the whole incumbent Air; and therefore Air within a House will keep at the same Height in the Torricellian Tube, as if it was

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Air. Nay, some Part of the Air of the same Density with the external Air shut up in a Vessel with stagnant φ , will by its Elastick Force keep the φ in the Tube at the same Height as before.

EXPERIMENT.

Plate 2. Fig. 19.] Take a Drinking-Glass as A, and immerge it in Water, so that the Air may not get out of it; if you sink it all under Water the Cavity will not be filled, the Air within hindering the Ascent of the Water; which may be shewn by purting Paper into the Bottom of the Glass, which will not be wet; but if you set the Paper on Fire, the Air by Heat being somewhat expelled, the Water will rife a good way in the Glass. Upon this Principle Diving-Bells are made, by which divers descend to the Bottom of the Sea and Breath freely under Water; yet the farther the Bell is funk the more the Air will be compressed. When it is about Thirty-three Foot under Water, the Air will be compressed to half the Space which it was before; this fometimes breaks their Blood-Vessels and makes them Bleed at Mouth Nose and Eyes.

Take

Take a Mortar and bind a Piece of Leather on the Mouth of it, then take a Cupping-Glass, and having rarified the Air by Heat, immediately fix it on the Leather, to which it will adhere very strongly, and the Leather will swell within the Glass, because the Air in the Mortar has more Force than that which is rarified within the Glass, and therefore presses the Leather outwards. The Glass sticks to the Leather, because the external Air presses it down. Upon this Principle Cupping also is explained; the internal Air in the Blood rarifies, when the Pressure of the external Air is taken away and distends the Skin, and makes it swell in the Glass. This is a Proof that there is a great deal of Air in the Blood.

Prop. XVIII.

To show that the Ascent of Fluids in Tubes after Suction, arises from the Pressure of the Air.

(Plate 4. Fig. 14.)

When a Man by the Muscles of his Breast enlarges the Cavity of the Thorax, then the external Air finding room wherein to expand it self, rushes in at his Mouth into his Lungs; so that if one Orifice

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Orifice of a Cube be in his Mouth, and the other immersed in Water, then that Part of the Supersicies of the Water, which is under the Tube, is free from Pressure; and since the other Parts of the Supersicies of the Water are press by the super-incumbent Weight of the external Air, it must needs be (by Prop. 5th) that the Water will ascend up the Tube, to wit, that the Parts under the Tube may be equally pressed by the incumbent Water, as much as the rest of the Supersicies of the Water is pressed by the incumbent Air; so that the Pressure of the external Air upon the Supersicies of the rest of the Water, is the Cause that the Water ascends up the Tube.

EXPERIMENT.

Plate 6. Fig. 15.] Take a Glass with a narrow Neck but without a Bottom as C, put a Tube in its Neck B, and cement them; then tye a Lamb's Bladder A to the End of the Tube within the Glass, and a large Ox Bladder D over the open End of the Glass, so that the Bladder may be forced inwards and drawn outwards; when the Ox Bladder is forced upwards, you will observe all the Air within the Lamb's Bladder wherein the Tube is inferted

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ferted will be expelled. If you draw the Ox Bladder outwards, the Air will rush again into the Lamb's Bladder; after this manner Respiration is performed. The Air in the Cavity of the Thorax acts on the Lungs just as the Air in the Ox Bladder does on that of the Lamb's. If the open End of the Tube be immersed in Water and the Ox Bladder drawn back, the Water will ascend the Tube and fill the Lamb's Bladder. Vide Prop. 19.

Prop. XIX.

Plate 6. Fig. 11.] The Ascent of Water in a Syringe, arises from the Pressure of the external Air. Viz. When the Tube of the Syringe is immersed in a Vessel of Water at q, the Piston being brought to RS is lest void of Air, so that the Gravity of the external Air pressing upon the Superficies o p, will make the Water ascend in the Tube as high as RS, viz. that the Part of the Superficies of the stagnant Water at q may be pressed by the incumbent Water in the Syringe with the same Force as the Superficies o p is pressed by the incumbent Air.

A

A Description of the AIR-PUMP which Mr. Boyle made use of.

Shall not give a Description of this Pump as it was when Mr. Boyle made use of it; because it may be found in the first Part of Dr. Harris's Lexicon

Technicum, under the Word AIR-PUMP.

Plate 5. Fig. 1st. Represents the Pump with all

its Apparatus.

DD is the Handle, which turning with the Nut BB, raises or depresses a Rack A A fastned to the Embolus which raises and falls in the Cylinder, that is in the Body of the Pump, and cannot be seen in this Figure, but is represented by the third Figure as it is when taken out of the Frame.

C is a Plate of Iron screwed down with four Screws upon the upper Part of the Pump, with a Notch filed in it for the back Part of the Rack to slide up and down in. It is also represented in

Fig. 2d.

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GFI is the Receiver open at both Ends.

GG is a smooth Brass Plate laid on the Receiver with a wet Leather to keep out the external Air.

H is a Brass Collar with Cork and Oiled Leathers, to let the Wire be drawn up and down without admitting the Air.

M N M is the Brass Plate of the Air-Pump, on which the Receiver stands, with a wet Leather

between the Plate and Receiver.

L L is a Board an Inch and an half thick, supported by the Iron Prop P which is raised at right Angles with the Side of the Pump a b to support the Plate and Receiver when the Pump is made use of, otherwise it hangs down by means of the Hinges a and b.

U is a Brass Pipe which lies in a Groove made in the Board, having a Communication with the Cylinder towards T, and with the Plate-Receiver

and Mercurial Gage at N.

R is a Cock to let the Air into the exhausted Receiver at pleasure, which will run in from U to N, and so up the little upright Pipe into the Receiver.

den la sis Raz

O is a Glass Vessel with \(\frac{1}{2} \) in it, to receive the End of the Glass Tube or Gage NO, which has a graduated Piece of Box to shew how high \(\frac{1}{2} \) rises, and consequently how much the Receiver is exhausted.

S is a Board which supports the Vessel O; kk are two Iron Screws to screw the Pump to the Floor of a Room when the Experiment requires the Engine to be very steddy. They are also represented in Fig. 8.

E is a Cock to let out the Water, which must be kept at A B above the Cylinder when you use the

Pump.

Fig. 3. Represents a Brass Cylinder Cleft at the Bottom, for the Piston represented by Fig. 4. to move up and down in. This Cylinder is screwed down to the Stool of the Pump, being let down into the Box under AB; and there is a Cement made of Pitch and Brick-Dust poured hot into the Box about the outside of the Cylinder, which growing hard when cold, keeps it fixed.

T is a Hole to receive the Screw of the Pipe X

Y, of Fig. 7.

Fig. 4. Represents the Rack A and Embolus BB, which makes up the Piston of the Pump.

g g is a Brass Plate fixed to the Rack about a quarter of an Inch less in Diameter than the inner

Diameter of the Cylinder.

sheep's Leather oiled very soft, about half an Inchmore in Diameter than the Bore of the Cylinder, which being put on immediately below the Plate g g, will fold round the said Plate up towards A when the Piston is let down into the Cylinder.

c d is a stiff Piece of Shoe-Sole-Leather, whose Diameter is so nearly equal to that of the Cylinder's Bore, that it must but just slip down into the

Cylinder without Friction

BB is a Brass Plate screwed on at the Bottom of the Rack to keep the whole Embolus together.

When this Piston is let down into the Cylinder below the Hole T, Fig. 1. the Air between T and U easily passes upwards by the Side of the Embolus, folding the left Leather up round the Plate gg, Fig. 4. But when you draw it from the Bottom no Air can get down below the Embolus, because the Space between the Sides of the Cylinder and the Plate cd, is not large enough to let the Air fold downwards; so that the Pressure of the Air and Water (which always lies on the Embolus, the more the soft

soft Leather is pressed to the Sides of the Cylinder, and therefore the Passage downwards round the Embolus must be close stopped and keep out the Air, even tho' the Bore of the Cylinder should not be truly round, as it happens in this, which by long use was become a little Oval.

Fig. 7. is a more exact Representation of the

Pipe UT of Fig. 1.

Y X is that Part which is to screw into the Cylinder, having a square Place at a to receive the Key of Fig. 5. which serves to turn all the Screws with its End s, or its End r.

Fig. 7. cab is that Part of the Pipe which lies

under the Plate that is screwed on at z.

c is to screw on the Part Y at T in Fig. 1.

a is a Screw to receive a Gage at the Place marked N in Fig. 1. It must have a Valve of a wet Bladder at the End of the Screw b, to which the Cock R is to be screwed, by applying the Key Q Fig. 5. to the square Place near b. Fig. 1.

Fig. 6. is the Brass Plate a quarter of an Inch thick, which is truly flat, having a Brass Rim round it to keep the Water from spilling when it is

I nich always lies on the E

made use of in any Experiment.

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P is a Hole in the Plate with a Screw to receive the little Pipe that stands upright under the Receiver.

N is the Plate with the Bottom upwards, shewing the Screw that fills the Hole z, of the Pipe of Fig. 7. at the Place marked N in Fig. 1.

The Receiver is Exhaufted in the following manner.

When by means of the Handle or Winch DD the Embolus is raised above the Level of the Pipe UT in Fig. I. (that is above the Hole T of the Cylinder in Fig. 3.) there is a Vacuum in the Cylinder under the Embolus and in the Pipe T.L; Fig. 1. so that the Valve at T being no longer pressed, the Air in the Receiver eafily lifts it up by its Elasticity, expands it self so as to fill the void Cylinder. Then depressing the Embolus the Air comes up out of the Cylinder betwixt its Sides and the Embolus, and so comes bubbling out thro' the Water at AB, and raising the Piston a second time, the Air in the Receiver (tho' pretty much rarified already) lifts up the Valve at T, and runs into the Cylinder with Ease, to fill the void Space under the Embolus, and then is expressed out as

be-

before; and so on till the Receiver is quite exhausted, which may be known by the rising of \$\Pi\$ in the Gage; for when it is got up to the same Height as that at which it stands in the Barometer, the Receiver is exhausted; because the Pressure of the Air being wholly taken off from that part of the Surface of \$\Pi\$ which is directly under the Tube, the external Air will press upon the other Part of the Surface of the stagnant \$\Pi\$, and so raise the \$\Pi\$ in the Tube, till it makes an Aquilibrium with the Weight of the Atmosphere.

N.B. The the external Air can come into the Pipe LT, it cannot get into the exhausted Receiver, because the Value is shut the closer towards N M the more the Air presses upon it, being made

only to open towards L.

EXPERIMENTS of the AIR-PUMP.

I. A Y your Hand on the Mouth of a small Receiver, and by the Pump draw out the Air, and your Hand will swell within the Receiver; after a few Suctions the Air will press upon your Hand so that you cannot raise it.

2. Tie a Bladder to the Mouth of a Receiver, and extract the Air; then the external Air will depress the Bladder so much, that a Man's Strength will not be able to fustain it.

3. Invert a Receiver, and tie a Weight to the Neck of a Bladder over the Mouth of the Receiver, and hanging on the outfide of it; having drawn the Air out of the Receiver, the outward Air will press so on the Bladder, as to thrust it up

into the Receiver, and raise the Weight.

4. Take a Piece of Glass and put it on the Mouth of a Receiver, having drawn out the Air, the Weight of the incumbent Air pressing on the Glass will break it. By this Experiment we prove that the Air presses every way; for in what Position soever the Glass be, it will still be broken by the incumbent Air

This is also proved by the strong Cohesion of two flat Pieces of Glass or Marble, exactly polished and ground together. As also by a Glass Recipient sticking so close to the Plate, after the Fxsuction of the Air, that it requires a considerable

Weight to pull it away.

5. In the Torcellian Experiment, if the Tube with the Mercury be put into a long Receiver, the will fall down at the Exsuction of the Air.

6. The same Experiment may be tried with Water in the Tube; but it is observed that the Water

will subside so fast as ?.

7. If in the Tube there be left a small Air-Bubble, the Bubble will expand it self and fill the whole Capacity of the Tube, even so much as to depress the Surface of the Water, under the Surface of the stagnant Water.

8. A flavid Bladder, after the Pressure of the external Air is taken off, dilates it self as far as it can.

9. The Expansion of the Air in a Bladder, will raise a Weight after the external Air is taken away.

10. A Bladder in which Weights are put to sink it under Water, will rise with its Weight after the

Extraction of the external Air.

11. A Piece of Cork, to which is tied just so much Weight as to make it sink all under Water, except the upper Surface of it, after the Air is extracted, will rise higher; but when you let in the Air again it will immediately sink towards the Bottom.

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12. Fishes in the Water in the Recipient will rise to the top of the Water when the Air is drawn out.

13. A Glass Bubble in which is lest just so much Water as will sink it, after the Extraction of the external Air will rise.

14. If you draw out the Air from a square Glass Bottle, the Weight of the incumbent Air will

break it to pieces.

15. If you put such a Bottle so closely stopt, that none of the Air can get out of it into the Receiver; after you have drawn out the external Air, that which is in the Bottle will so dilate it self, as to break the Bottle.

16. If you put two Brass Hemispheres together, shutting them one within the other, and only putting a Piece of wet Leather between them; if after this you pump out all the Air by the Help of a Valve at the Bottom of one of the Hemispheres, the Air cannot return into them; they will stick so closely by reason of the external Air, that it will require a very great Force to pull them assunder.

17. If you put any Animal into the Receiver, and pump out the Air, the Animal will immedi-

ately die.

18. If

18. If you take a Glass Bottle half full of Water, having a Glass Tube cemented in the Neck of it, one End of which is below the Surface of the Water, and the other being above the top of the Bottle, has a Brass Top with small Holes in it; if you put this into the Receiver, and pump out the Air, the Air in the Bottle will dilate it self so as to press on the Surface of the Water, and raise it up in Spouts thro' the Holes of the Tube like a Fountain.

19. If you put a Bell so raised on a wooden Frame, that it may have room to move into a Receiver, and pump the Air out; then if you shake the Pump, so as to move the Bell, you will hardly hear the Sound of it.

This is a Proof that Sounds depend on the Air. 20. If you put a Glass of warm Water into the Receiver, and pump out the Air, the Water will perfectly seem to boil; the Reason is this, viz. The Elastick Force of the Air which is in the Water being increased by Heat, and not being pressed by any external Air, it endeavours to dilate it self, and by that means makes the Water bubble up; this is the way by which the Air may be almost all Extracted from the Water.

How to Condense the AIR, so that you may put what Quantity you please into a Vessel.

Plate 4. Fig. 10. F you have a Brass Vessel half full of Water, with a Hole on the top

of it, into which you may screw a little Brass Pipe at A, with a Cock at B, by which you may let in the Air; if on this you screw a Syringe which has at the bottom a Valve, by which the Air forced into the Pipe may be kept from returning again; and likewise a Curve Tube screwed to it at C, or only a small Hole and a Valve at the same Place, if then you draw up the Sucker of the Syringe, the Air will come in thro' the Tube D into the Syringe at C, and the Valve will then hinder it from returning. If then you open the Cock at B, and thrust down the Sucker, the Air will likewise descend into the Vessel, and by the Valve at the bottom of the Syringe be hindered from

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from returning; by repeating this often, you may put what Quantity of Air you please into a Vessel. If then you take off the Syringe, and screw on in the place of it a Pipe with Holes, when you open the Cork, the Air pressing hard on the Water, will force it up to a great Height, and will spout out in Figures according to the Holes of the Pipe.

ARREST AR

Of BAROMETERS, THERMO-METERS, and HYDROME-TERS.

proved, that the g within the Tube gravitates as much on the Surface of the stagnant Mercury, as the Air does on the rest of its Surface; and that a Column of Air reaching to the top of the Atmosphere, is of the same Weight with a Column of Mercury of the same Basis, and of an Height equal to the g in the Tube. Now if the Air should grow heavier, and press more on the Surface of the stagnant

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nant &, then the & in the Tube must rise higher, that it may be equal in Weight to a Column of Air of the same Basis, reaching to the top of the

Atmosphere.

Hence it follows, that the Height of the \$\frac{1}{2}\$ in the Tube may be fitly applied to measure the Gravity of the Air, and on that Account an Instrument filled to that Purpose is called a B A-ROMETER.

Sometimes & rises Thirty Inches, sometimes it stands at Twenty-nine, sometimes at Twenty-eight, sometimes it will sink to Twenty-seven, but seldom under, and of consequence the Gravity of

the Air must alter proportionably.

Since Gravity is always proportionable to what the Matter weighs, it is impossible that the Air should change its Gravity, without changing its Quantity of Matter; and therefore some have thought this Difference of the Air's Gravity to proceed from its being more or less over-charged with Vapours; if this were the Case, there must be as many Vapours in the Air at a time, as are equal to Three Inches of \mathfrak{P} , for so much we find the \mathfrak{P} rises or falls.

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Now p is about Fourteen Times heavier than Water, and consequently there must be in the Air at once, as many Vapours as will equal in length a Column of Water of Forty-two Inches high, and whose Basis is equal to the Surface of the Earth; which is more than falls down in Rain during a whole Year; for a whole Year's Rain does not fill a Vessel above Fourteen or Fisteen Inches high, as is observed in the History of the Royal Society at Paris.

The Reason then why the Air is heavier at one time than another, arises from their being more Air in that part of the Earth's Surface, where the Air grows heavier, and this proceeds from Winds. V. G. If the Wind (which is nothing but a Stream of Air) should blow over any Place, and the Air thus moved should be kept in that Place by Mountains or Hills; or if two contrary Winds should blow on the same Place, the Air would be heaped up in the Middle, and consequently there being more Air, its Gravity will be increased; but if a Wind should blow over a Country, the Air which is over that Place will be less in Quantity and consequently lighter. Hence it is plain, that Winds are the only Cause of the Air's Gravity.

When the Air is heavy, the Sun acting on the Surface of the Water raises the Vapours from it; these being raised are specifically lighter than Air, and consequently they must rise higher, till they come to an Air of the same Specifick Gravity with themselves, where they will rest; and a vast Collection of these Vapours from Clouds, so long as the Air continues heavy, the Vapours will be sustained, and the Weather will be Fair. But if the Air turns lighter, the Vapours which were in Æquilibrio with it before, will now preponderate, and consequently descend; in their Descent being continually checked by the great Resistance of Air with which they meet, they will be condensed; this Condensation will still grow more and more, till at last they are formed into Drops of Rain.

Hence it follows, that when the p in the Tube is high, then the Weather will be Fair, and when it falls low, the Vapours then not being sufficiently sustained by the Air, must also fall, and the Weather will be rainy, and the Rain more or less according as the Mercury rises or falls in the Tube.

T many bandied Upon

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Upon this Principle common Weather-Glasses are made; but to make the Change of the Air's Gravity more visible, several Instruments have been contrived.

Plate 2. Fig. 21.] The Wheel-Barometer which consists of a Recurve Tube A B C G E filled with \$\frac{7}{2}\$, the Gravity of the Air pressing on the Surface E, there swims a Leaden Ball tied to a String, at the other End of which there is also tied a Weight, and the String runs on a Pulley at C, to which there is an Hand or Index applied, which moves along with the Pulley; and a large Piece of Brass B F G E divided into any Number of equal Parts, marked 1, 2, 3, 55 c. When the \$\frac{7}{2}\$ falls at B it must rise at E, and consequently raise the Ball with it, whereupon the Weight at D will descend lower, and draw the String with it; and by this Motion, the Pulley being turned, the Hand will shew the least Variation of the Air.

This was invented by Dr. Hook; but this Instrument has one Inconvenience which makes it almost useless; for in damp Weather the String to which the Weights are tied, is contracted; and in dry it will grow longer; by this Motion it will move the Hand, when in the mean time the ? has neither risen nor fallen. A Watch String will do better with an Iron Ball instead of a Leaden

one, which would be eaten up by the g.

Plate 6. Fig. 18.] 2. HUGENS contrived another Instrument after this manner. A B C DEF is a Recurve Tube, so made that the two Parts of it A B and D E have a much greater Bafis than the rest, the Tube being filled with \$, the Gravity of the Air pressing on the Surface at G, will fustain the \$\mathbb{z}\$ to the Height AB, the Parts AB and DE being of an equal Height; if the \$\mathbb{z}\$ fall an Inch at AB, it will rise as much at DE. Thro' the Orifice M on the Surface DE is poured Oil of Tartar per Deliquium, or Spirits of Wine, or some other Liquor that will not Freeze, to the Height F. Now when the & rises at DE but an Inch, it will raise the Liquor which is poured into the Tube KI an Inch; and the slender Tube M P being of a much less Basis than the Tube KI, it must rise higher in M P. Thus if the Basis D E be ten times greater than O P, for one Inch that the Liquor rises in the Tube K I, it will rise ten Inches in the slender Tube M P. If \$\nabla\$ falls one Inch in the Tube A B, the Liquor will rise ten in MP.

This

This Sort of Barometer has also an Inconvenience, which is, that as the Weather is Hot or Cold, so the Liquor in the Tube M P will dilate or contract it self, and consequently rise or fall; whereas the g continues still the same

Height.

3. Since \$\frak{z}\$ in a Tube keeps always the fame 1. Height, however the Tube be inclined; the best Contrivance for a Barometer seems to be this. A B C is a Tube (Plate 6. Fig. 3.) bended as in the Figure; B C is about Twenty-six Inches long, and A B so inclined that it may be Fifteen, whereas the 1 A E would not be above Five, according to the Structure, for every Inch the \$\frak{z}\$ rises in the ordinary Tube, it will rise Three in the inclined one A B.

As B AROMETERS shew the different Changes of Air, as to Gravity and Levity, whence we estimate Fair and Foul-weather; so Thermometers are made use of to measure the various Temperature of the Air, as to Heat and Cold; to discover which there are several Instruments contrived.

Plate 6. Fig. 13.] 1. The First is almost in the Form of a Barometer, only the upper End of the Tube.

Tube ends in a large Glass Ball. This Ball is heated by putting near the Fire, so that the Air in it will be rarified, and somewhat expelled by Heat; then immediately the Neck of the Tube is to be immersed in stagnant Water, which should be tinged with some Colour that it may more easily be perceived. As Air in the Ball A begins to cool, it being more rare and less compressed than the external Air, the Water in the Vessel will be impelled up into the Tube to B, by the Force of the external Air, and so compress the Air in A as much as the external Air is compressed. Now if the Air in A be afterwards again more heated, it will endeavour to expand it self, and fill up a greater Space, and so press the Water down; but when it grows cooler it will be contracted into a less Compass, and the Water will again ascend; fo that when the Water in the Tube descends, the Air is hotter, and when the Water ascends, the Air is cooler. When a made and a nonard amed

Plate 6. Fig. 1.] 2. The second Kind of THERMOSCOPE is by a Recurre Tube, thro' the Orifice of which at D, the tinged Water is poured, and fills up the Space BC, compressing the Air in the Globe A, in which, when the

the Air grows more hot, it expands it self and takes up the greater room by pressing the Water in the Tube upwards to D; and when the Air is cooled, it is again condensed, and the Water falls down; so that the rising of the Water denotes its Heat, and the falling the Coldness of the Air,

contrary to what is done in the first Sort.

Plate 6. Fig. 12.] 3. The third Sort is in this Fashion. Thro' the narrow Neck of a Glass Bottle filled with Water, is put a long Tube open at both Ends, the lower End of which is immersed below the Water; after having fixed the Tube with Cement, so that there can be no Communication between the external Air and that in the Phial, Air is blown strongly thro' the Tube, by which the Air in the Phial is compressed; and therefore it will press the Water up to D; and if the Air always continues in the same Tenor as to Heat and Cold, the Water would always continue in the same Station; but when the Air in the Phial grows hotter, it will endeavour to expand it felf, and press more strongly on the Surface of the Water, and raise it higher in the Tube.

In these Sorts of Thermometers, and all others which have any Communication with the external

Air,

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Air, the Liquor will not only be raised or depressed by the Change of Air, as to Heat or Cold; but also to any Alteration as to Gravity or Levity; and consequently the Temperature of the Air as to Heat and Cold may remain, when nevertheless the Height of the Water may be considerably altered.

Plate 6. Fig. 5.] 4. This Sort of THER-MOSCOPE is not liable to the same Inconconvenience. It is a long Tube with a Glass Ball at the End of it, which being filled with high and rectified Spirits of Wine half up to D, the remaining empty Part C is considerably heated, that the Air may be expelled; after this the top of the Tube is to be immediately Sealed Hermetically, so that the Air may not re-enter the Tube; then the Rarefaction and Condensation of the Spirits of Wine, by which it rises or falls in the Tube, according to the Degrees of Heat or Cold, shew the Temperature of the Air as to Heat and Cold.

Plate 6. Fig. 14.] 5. Another Sort of Thermoscope is thus contrived. A and B are two Cylindrical Glass Vessels joined to the Recurve Tube
DGF; the upper Part of the Vessel A is void of
Air.

Air, and the rest is filled with &, as in the Torricellian, Experiment, and the prises half way in the Vessel B, On the Surface of the so there is put in a Tube some tinged Liquor or rather Oil of Tartar per Deliguium, which will not Freeze, which reaches up to D, to the End of the Tube BK; a Glass Globe C full of Air is Sealed on Hermetically to prevent Communication with the external Air. In this Thermometer, when by the Gold in the ambient Air, the Air G is cooled and condensed bothe grwill by its own Weight subside in A, and rife higher in B, and consequently impel the Liquors up into the Tube B K; and if the Basis of the Cylindrical Vessel A and B be ten Times greater than the Baks of the Tube B.K.; when the & falls, one Inch in A, or rifes one in B, the Liquor will rise ten Inches in the Tube B.K; also if the Air be heated in C, and rarified, it will by expanding it felf, make the gr descend in B, and rise in A; so that the smallest Variations as to Heat and Cold are thus shewn by the Ascent and Descent of the Liquor in the Tube B K.

To measure the Moisture and Dryness of the Air, we use an Instrument called an HTDROME-TER of which there are two or three Sorts.

Plate

Plate 4. Fig. 11.] 1. The First is made by a Force-Balance, in one of the Scales of which is put a Piece of Spunge, and in the other a Weight to Counterpoise it; the Spunge in damp Weather imbibes the Moisture and grows heavier. In dry Weather the Moisture being exhaled, the Spunge becomes lighter: And so by the Motions of the Examen we find the Alteration of the Air, in respect of its Humidity. To make the Variations the more sensible, the Examen of the Balance is made very long, which passes on a circular Arch of Brass divided into Degrees, marked 1, 2, 3, 6c. According as the End of the Examen is at any of these Degrees, so we judge of the Weather.

Plate 6. Fig. 2.] 2. Another Sort is contrived after this manner. To a Rope or Cat's-Gut, a Cylindrical Weight is tied; in damp Weather the Rope by twisting it self will contract and pull up the Weight, and in fair Weather lets it sink farther down. To make the Variations more sensible, the Cylindrical Weight being about sisteen or sixteen Inches round, is divided into thirty or forty equal Parts, marked 1, 2, 3, &c. To prevent its being injured a Glass is put over it, thro' which

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the String passes at A; this Glass is covered with Brown or Blew Paper, except one small Hole, thro' which the Figure on the Side of the Weight may be seen. Now the twisting or untwisting of the Rope, according to the Variation of the Moistness of the Air, will always present a new

Figure to the Hole.

Plate 6. Fig. 17.] 3. A third Sort of HT-DROMETER is made with the Beard of a wild Oat, or the Husk of a small Vetch, which in dry Weather twists, and in wet Weather untwists. One End is fastned to the Bottom of a Box, the other comes thro' an Hole in the Lid, and has an Index adapted to it, so that the Motion of the Hand or Index on the Top of the Box shews the Variation of the Moistness and Dryness of the Weather.



CATOPTRICKS.

DEFINITIONS.

AY S of Light are those which are diffused every way in strait Lines thro' the same Medium, and spread them-selves constantly after the same Tenor,

as long as they continue in the same Medium.

2. A Radiant is that, from whose Points Rays

disperse themselves every way:

3. Diverging Rays (Plate 7. Fig. 3.) are those which meet in a Point opposite to the Direction of their Motion, or those Rays which spread themselves after that manner, as if they had all come from one Point, whether they really came from that Point or not. As the Rays B D going from B to D, are said to diverge from the Point C, whether they actually come from it or not; for tho' they should come from A, they are said to diverge from C, because if you produce them from B till they meet in a Point opposite to the Direction of their Motion, that Point will be C.

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4. Con-

4. Converging Rays are those which meet, or being produced, meet in a Point towards that Part whither the Direction of the Motion tends. As the Rays D B are said to Converge towards C, whether they meet in C, or after Refraction thro' the Glass E E, they go on Parallel to the Line A C D.

5. The Focus is that Point where the Rays

meet.

6. Parallel Rays are those which come from a Point at a great Distance from us, and contain but a very small Angle one with another, as from the Sun.

7. Rays are Said to Reflect, when they are turn-

ed backward in the same Medium.

A real Focus is the Place where the Rays actually meet, as (in Fig. 5.) the Point B where the Rays D meet, after they have past the Glass CC, and the Point A, where these converging Rays wou'd meet, if there was no Glass at CC, is called the Imaginary Focus.

Fig. 8. Plate 7.] In a Concave Mirror, if e be an Object, E will be the Focus of the Rays, which having diverged from the Object, and fallen upon the Concave Mirror, are by Reflection

made to Converge at E.

Plate

Plate 7. Fig. 3.] A Concave Glass transmitting Light, has no real Focus of parallel Rays, because after they have passed the Glass they diverge from one another, as the Rays A after they have passed the Glass E diverge towards D, but the Point C is called the Vertical Focus of the Concave Glass.

8. The Angle of Incidence, is that which is contained under the incident Ray (Fig. 2. Plate 7.) and the L to the Plane of the Point of Incidence, as

ABC.

9. The Angle of Reflection is that which is contained under the reflected Ray, and the said L as the Angle DBC, sometimes ABE, and DBF, are called the Angles of Incidence and Reflection.

THEOREME.

The Angle of Incidence is always equal to that of Reflection. This is confirmed by Experience, and has been several ways Demonstrated by Mathematicians.

10. Specula, or Mirrors, are those which by reflecting of the Light form Images of external Radiants.

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THEOREME.

Plate 7. Fig. 1. or 4.] R AYS coming from a Point A, and falling on a plain Mirror BC, after Reflection diverge from the Point a, which is in the L as far behind the Glass, as the Radiant is before it. For because A B is equal to a and B, and D B is common to the Triangles A B D and a B D, and the Angles at B are equal, the Angles A DB and a DB will be equal, per 4th El. 1. But by the 15 of the same, the Angles D A Band G D Care equal; therefore, if A D be the incident Ray, G D will be the reflected. After the same manner it may be shewn that HE is the reflected Ray of the Incident A E and KF of AF; and therefore all the reflected Rays, if produced, will meet at a. If the Eye was placed at H, it would receive the Rays which come from A, and are reflected at the Surface BC, as if they had really come from a, and confequently the Eye will be the same way affected as if it came at O, Fig. 4. and received the Rays coming from A; and therefore the Eye at H will see the Image of the Point A at a.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 6. Plate 7.] Since the Image of every Point is as far behind the Glass as the Point is before the Glass, the Image must be the same way inclined to the Glass as the Radiant is. So the Image of the Point A must be at a, and the Image of the Point E must be at e.

Hence it follows, that if the Glass lies horizontally, Objects will have their Images inverted, and Men will appear with their Heads downwards, as when we look in the Water.

What has been shewn of the principal Radiants, is also true of their Images; for they may be considered as Objects which send Rays; and therefore if there be another Glass to receive these Rays, there will be another Image formed within that Glass, and so that Image will still have another Image, &c. From whence arises the Multiplication of Images by the help of two or three plain Looking-Glasses.

Plate 7. Fig. 7.] Suppose two Looking-Glasses B C E F, let the Radiant be A, whose Image by the Glass B C is a; this Image being considered as a Radiant, will send Rays to the Glass E F at a, and this Image will likewise have its Image in the Glass B C at G, and so you may multiply Images

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as far as you please. If GDHEKF (Fig. 4.) be incident Rays, their reflected Rays will be DA, EA, FA, i.e. if Rays be converging to the Point a, there to form an Image; and there be interposed a plain Speculum B, they will reflect to the Point A and Form an Image there. Experience answers

to this exactly.

Fig. 9.] Take common Reading or Burning Glass E, and put the Radiant at A. Let the Place of the Image to be formed be a, put a Looking-Glass at BC, and a Man's Eye at O will see the Image at a in the Air between him and the Glass; for by the Burning-Glass the Rays coming from a Point in the Radiant A are made to Converge to a correspondent Point in the Image a; but by the Looking-Glass they are intercepted and reflected, therefore they will be turned another way, and those that went from one Point at A will meet with another correspondent to it at a, where they will form an Image.

In Concave Spherical Mirrors the Image of any Point is always in a Line passing thro' that Point

and the Center.

Plate 7. Fig. 10.] Thus the Image of the Point E will be at e, the Image of F at f, and the Image of G at g.

Hence

Hence it follows, that if the Image be in the Air before, it will appear inverted. The Reason why the Image is formed, is, because all the Rays which come from the Point E, and falling near the Vertex of the Mirror, reflect so, that they will meet at e, whence they diverge, forming at e the Image of the Point E. After the same manner those which come from F after Reflection meet again at f, and there form the Image of F.

If the Radiant approaches the Glass, the Image will recede from the Glass, and at the Center of

the Sphere they will both meet.

If the Radiant approaches still nearer, the I-mage will go out beyond the Center; and when the Radiant comes to be at the distance of a quarter of the Diameter from the Vertex, the Image will be out at an infinite distance. When the Radiant comes nearer to the Glass than a quarter of the Diameter, the Image appears behind the Glass, and erected. If the Mirror be Convex, the I-mage of an external Radiant is always behind the Glass.

Plate 7. Fig. 8.] The Magnitude of the I-mage may be known from this; that it always appears under the same Angle from the Vertex of X the

the Speculum that the Radiant does, and consequently they will have the same Proportion one to another as their Distances from the Vertex have; and therefore if the Radiant be farther off than the Distance from the Glass, it will be bigger than the Image, if at the same Distance at the Center they are equal; if the Image is farther off than the Radiant from the Glass, it will appear bigger than the Radiant. See the Figure where E may be the Radiant, and e the Image; or e the Radiant and E the Image.

N. B. The Focus or Point where the Image is formed, is the middle Point between the Vertex and Center of the Speculum; in all these Cases where the Radiant is supported at an infinite Distance, as the Sun, and the Rays sent from it are reckoned as Parallel.



DIOP.

DIOPTRICKS.

HEN a Ray of Light comes out of one Wedium into another, it changeth its Direction. This changing of the Direction

is what we call Refraction.

Plate 7. Fig. 12.] The Angle of Refraction is comprehended under the refracted Ray, and a I drawn to the Surface of the refracting Medium, at the Point where the incident Ray falls on the same Medium as the Angle HDK. If the Ray of Light goes into a thicker Medium, it comes nearer to a L; if into a thinner, then it recedes from the L.

Fig. 11.] There are several ways to shew this by Experience. V. G. Take a Bason, into which put a Piece of Money at A, and then recede so far back, that the Sides of the Bason may intercept the Sight, so that the Light cannot come in a strait Line from A to the Eye at D; if Water be afterwards poured in, the Money will be seen; for the Ray AB when it comes to the Surface of the

Air

Air at B, changeth its Direction, and goes off in

DB, and so enters the Eye.

Fig. 12. Plate 7.] Suppose the Medium E C to be Air, H K Glass or Water, and AB the Surface of the Medium H K. Let E D be a Ray of Light, entering the Medium at D, as the Angle E DC is the Angle of Incidence, so is H D K the refracted Angle, and the Sides of these Angles have always a certain determinate Proportion to one another; and if you take small Angles, they themselves are always in this Proportion. If E C be Air, and H K Glass, the Angle E D C is to H D K, as 3 to 2. If E C be Air and H K Water, the Proportion between the Angles E D C and H D K is as 4 to 3.

Fig. 13.] To shew Refraction more plainly, take a common Burning-Glass, and cover it with Paper, in which let there be two Holes, thro' which the Light is to pass at B and C, then put a Candle at A; the Light passed thro' without bending the Rays coming thro' the Holes B and C, ought to diverge farther and farther from one another; but we find that if the Light be received on a Piece of Paper, the Rays converge one to another; when the Paper is at I, the Light falls at GK; when

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when it's removed farther, the Rays fall at D E nearer one another, and when the Paper is removed to F, there the two Lights coincide and then diverge a-

gain.

Plate 8. Fig. 4.] Suppose GH Water, I A.E. Air, the Rays coming out of Water into Air are refracted, so that those which came from the Point E, seem after Refraction as if they had come from C, and enter the Eye at I A, as if they had all come from that Point. So that C.E is a quarter of BE.

Fig. 3: Plate 8.] Hence when we look on an Object in Water, it appears a quarter nearer the Surface than it is; and on the same Account an Oar in the Water will appear bent, for the Point A will appear higher, viz. at B, and the Point C at D; so that the Oar in the Water instead of being seen in the Position F C.A, will be seen in that of F D B.

Plate 10. Fig. 6.] If the Object A be seen thro' the Prism G H, by the Eye at D, it will appear as if it was at C; for the Rays falling from A obliquely upon the Surface of the Prism at H, are refracted towards the LE (because they go from Air into Glass) and would go on still in the

the Direction HG if they continued to move in Glass, but emerging out of Glass into Air, they are retracted from the 1 to F, and going on in the Line DG, enter the Eye as if they came directly from C.

If the same Object be seen thro' a Medium which terminated by many plain different Surfaces, it will appear to be multiplied into as many as there are Surfaces, for thro' every Surface the Object is seen in a different 'Place; and consequently as many Surfaces as there are, so many distinct Objects will appear. The Rays which come from the Objects thro' these different Surfaces of the Glass forming the Images therein on different Parts of the Retina.

A Lens is a Glass which is terminated by two Spherical, or one Plain and one Spherical Surface.

And it is Convex on both Sides, or Convex on one Side, and Flat on the other.

Concave on both Sides, or Concave on one Side, and Flat on the other.

Or a Meniscus, that is, Concave on one Side, and Convex on the other.

Plate 10. Fig. 5.] When Rays diverge from any Point of an Object, and spread themselves e-

very way, if then you expose a Convex-Lens to these Rays, they will form a Cone, whose Vertex is at the Point of Divergence, and Base at the Lens; as the Rays which diverge from A, and fall on the Glass CD; when these Rays pass thro' the Glass they are all refracted (except that which falls at E on the Middle of the Glass) and meeting again at the Point B, form another Cone whose Base is the Glass C D (on the other Side) and Vertex at B: This Cone together with the other Cone is called a Pencil of Rays, and A E D is the Axis of the Pencil, or a Line drawn from the Point of Divergence on the Side of the Glass, to the Point of Divergence on the other. There are as many Pencils of Rays thro' a Glass as there are visible Points in the Object, and tho' the Axis of the oblique Pencils suffer some Refraction in passing obliquely thro' the Lens, yet they are not to be looked upon as refracted, because after they have passed the Glass, they go on in a Line H, Fig. 5. to the Line in which they moved before they entered it, and the thinner the Glass is, the more insensible is that Refraction.

Plate 8. Fig. 1.] A a, B b, C c, represent three Pencils of Rays passing thro' a double Con-

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vex-Glass. When the Object ABC by means of a double Convex-Glass has its Image projected at at b ca; the Angles which the Axis of these Pencils that come from the Extremities of the Object make with the Middle of the Glass, determine the Magnitude of that Image; and the Place where the Pencils of Rays terminate on these Axes, is called the Distinct Base, because there only is the most

Distinct Image of the Object projected.

Plate 8. Fig. 1.] By the former Experiment it was shewn, that the Light which comes from a certain Point in the Candle, placed at a due Distance from the Glass or Lens, was made by Refraction to converge and meet at a Point; therefore if there be an Object placed before the Glass at ABC, all the Rays which come from the Point A will after Refraction be made to converge at the Point a, and all the Rays which come from B will after Refraction meet at b, and all the Rays which come from C will be refracted to c; and if the Eye be at a, it will receive the Rays diverging from the Points a b c, the same way as if it had received the Rays directly coming from the principal Radiants ABC; and therefore the I-mage will be formed at a b c and inverted.

If a piece of Paper be placed at abc, the Rays will thence be reflected by the Paper, and will Point on the Paper the Image of the Radiant.

The Image and the Radiant have always the same Proportion the one to the other, that their Distances from the Lens have; and therefore if the Image be farther from the Lens than the Radiant is, it will be bigger than the Radiant is; if nearer it will be less. If the Radiant at ABC be brought nearer to the Lens, the Image will recede farther from it; and it may be brought to such a determinate Distance, as to cast the Image as far from the Glass as may be required to magnifie it to any given Proportion. If the Glass be equally Convex on both Sides, and the Radiant placed at a Semidiameter's distance from the Lens, the Image is cast out at an infinite Distance; and if the Radiant be placed at an infinite Distance, the Image is at a Semidiameter's distance from the Lens.

If the Sun be the Radiant which is at an infinite Distance, and the Glass be sufficiently broad; in the Place of the Image there will be a Flame, which will burn very intensely, because all the Rays which come directly from the Sun, and fall on the broad Lens, are by Refraction brought into a small Space to form the Image.

Y Plate

Plate 8. Fig. 6.] If at the Place of the Sun's Image (which is sometimes called the Focus of parallel Rays, or sometimes simply the Focus) there be placed a Lucid Body, as a Candle or Lamp, the Rays, after Refraction thro' the Lens, will go out parallel, and not diverge from one another; and the Light not spreading, will continue in the same Intenseness at all Distances, and consequently it will illuminate Objects at a distance. On this Principle Convex-Lanthorns are made.

If the Radiant be nearer the Lens than the Focus of parallel Rays, the Image will not be seen on the other Side of the Lens, but on the same Side that the Radiant is, only farther of, and not

inverted, but erect.

Fig. 5.] Suppose ABC a Radiant nearer to the Lens than the Focus of parallel Rays, all the Rays which come from the Point, A, will enter the Eye at E, as if they had come from the Point a; and all the Rays which come from B and C will seem to have diverged at first from b and c; and so the Eye will see the Object not at ABC, but at a bc; and because the Angle DE D is the same with a Ec, the Object will be seen magnified, a bc being greater than ABC.

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If a Room be darkned, and only one Hole made in the Window to let in the Rays which come from external Objects, and in the Hole there be placed a Convex Lens, this Lens will form the Images of all external Objects that are before it; and if at a distance there be put a Piece of white Paper, the Images will be received on it, and they will all appear inverted: The Reason of which follows plainly from the former Principles; for all the Rays which come from any one Point of the Object, will by Refraction be made to meet at one Point on the Paper, and thence they will be reflected again; and the same thing is true of every other Point: So that the Image of every Point thus put together on the Paper will shew the Image of the radiant Object in the same Colour the Object is of, because every Image is formed by the very fame Rays, and of the very fame Affection as to Colour, as they which come from the Objects are. The Objects being much farther from the Lens than the Images are, these must be much less, and the nearer the Object is to the Lens, the Image will be the farther from it, and appear the bigger.

If

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If the Object move, the Image will also seem to move; provided it do not move directly towards the Lens. By this Principle the Prospect of

Places may be taken.

Plate 7. Fig. 14.] The Appearances of the Magick Lanthorn differ but little from those of the dark Chamber. The Lanthorn has two Convex-Glasses at A and BB, and a Lamp burning; at F there is a Slit made to hold a long Piece of Wood D C, in which are cut several round Holes to hold the Pictures which are of painted Glas; and the Flame of the Candle or Lamp E being great, a confiderable Quantity of Light falls on the Pictures, and passing thro' the two Lens's, will form the Images of these Pictures on the opposite Wall: The Pictures being much nearer to the Lens than their Images on the Wall, the Images will be prodigiously larger than the Pietures, according as the Wall is distant. If by pulling out the Tube in which the Lens B is fixed, you make the Distance from the Pictures greater, the Distance of the Images will be less, and consequently the Images themselves will be less in proportion.

Plate 8. Fig. 13.] A Concave Lens forms the Image on the same Side that the Radiant is, but much less and nearer it. For if the Object BA be put before the Lens E F, it will be seen by the Eye at C, in the Position ab, and by consequence less than the Object; for the Ray A E falling on the Lens at E, is refracted into g E, and comes nearer to the 1, and the Ray Eg coming on the Convex Surface of the Air at g, will be refracted into g c and recede from the L: So that the Rays A B will enter the Eye at Corc, as if it had come directly from a, and not from A. So that the Eye being at C, and receiving the Rays coming from A and B, will be the same way affected as if they came from a and B. After the same manner the Rays which come from B will enter the Eye at C, as if they had come from b, so that the Eye will see the Object BA at Ba nearer to it, and also much less than it really is.

Plate 8. Fig. 8.] The Eye is a Lens contrived by God to project the Images of external Objects on the Retina; and then it is that we see distinctly, when those Images are distinctly painted on the Retina. Immediately under the first Coat of the Eye, which is called the Tunica Cornea, A

B, there's an Humour of the same Consistence with Water, and is called the Aqueous Humour EF. In the Middle of this there swims another Membrane, called the Uvea CD, which is opaque, and lets no Light pass thro' it, but as perforated at CD, and the small Hole is called the Pupilla; so that all the Light which forms the Image must pass thro' that Hole. Next to the watery Humour is a consistent Globe, which is called the Christalline Humour K, and behind this is placed the vitreous Humour HG, which is not consistent as the Christalline, but yet is firmer than the Aqueous. Behind the vitreous Humour lies the Retina, which arises from the Insertion of the Optick Nerve at L, and it is supposed to consist of an infinite Number of small Nerves, standing 1 by, on the Concave Surface of the Eye, on which the Images of external Objects are painted. The Figure of the Eye is Spherical, being the only Figure which can turn every way in the Hole it fills up.

Now because those Rays only which come from any single Point of an Object, and fall on the Middle of the Eye at M, are united at one Point on the Retina, those which fall at A and B obliquely, not being exactly united with the rest, at

that

that Point, therefore the Eye is furnished with the Uvea, an opaque Coat, which intercepts all those

Rays which fall obliquely on the Eye.

The Pupilla or Hole in this Coat, has Power to dilate or contract it self, to let more or less Light pass thro' it, and in the Day time it is but small; for too much Light from the Sun would hurt the Eye: In the Night time it grows wider, to let in all the Light it can to affect the Retina; and this is the Reason why at Twilight Things appear bigger than they are, for the Pupilla being very wide, a great many Rays come on the Retina, which fall on the Corner very obliquely, and therefore will not all be united in one Point on the Retina, but take some Space on it, and so the Image of the whole will be much greater than it ought to be. 'Tis on the same Account that a Candle, in the Night time, seen at a Distance, appears much greater than it ought to do, and the same is true of the fixed Stars, for they appear much less if we look at them thro' a small Hole in a Paper.

To make all this plain, take two Tin Tubes, made to go one within the other, so that you might make them longer or shorter as you please;

if at one End of these Tubes was put a Lens, and at the other fastened a piece of oiled Paper, or any thin Membrane of an Animal to represent the Retina, and the End where the Lens is put, be covered with a Lid, in which must be made a small Hole to represent the Pupilla; then if you draw the Retina backwards or forwards, you will at a certain Distance see the Images of external Objects painted on it in their true Colours, as in

the dark Chamber, or Magick Lanthorn.

Since then the Eye is a Lens which projects the Images of external Objects on the Retina, if the Eye should keep always the same Figure, and the Retina the same Distance behind it, there would be but one certain and determinate Distance at which it would see Objects distinctly; VG. If the Retina were just at the Distance of the Focus of Parallel Rays from the Cornea, no Objects would have their Images distinctly projected on the Retina but those which are at a good Distance from it, so long as the Eye kept that Figure; but if the Eye were of such a Figure, as to cast the Images of near Objects on the Retina; if the Objects were farther removed, the Images would not fall on the Retina, but between the Cornea and it. If then

then the Eye kept one and the same Figure always, there would be no distinct Vision, but when Objects are at one determinate Distance from the Eye, which would be very inconvenient for Animals: And therefore to remedy this, the Eye has the Power of changing its Figure, whereby the Cornea is sometimes part of the Surface of a larger Sphere, fometimes of a lesser, and it is on this Account that the Eye is made to confift of various and flexible Humours and Parts, the most moveable of all which is the watery Humour, lying immediately under the Cornea, next to which is the Christalline of the firmest Consistence; the Christalline is closely embraced by the Ligamentum Ciliare, by which it is suspended, and the Fibres of the Ligament by their Contraction or Dilatation bring the Christalline backwards or forwards. When the Christalline is brought forwards, it forwards the aqueous Humour, and makes the Eye more protuberant, or the Segment of a lesser Sphere: On the contrary, when the Christalline is brought back, the aqueous Humour returns also, and the Eye becoms more flat, or the Segment of a larger. Sphere; so that by the Motion of the Christalline the Cornea is made more or less convex, the greatest

greatest Refraction being made on the Cornea. 'Tis by this Mobility or Changeableness of the Eye that we are made to see Objects at different Distances from us.

If the Objects are at a Distance, the Eye that looks at them grows slatter, if they are near us, the Eye grows more convex: Now if the Eye could apply it self to see Objects at all Distances from us, we could always see every Object distinctly, and near Objects would be brought so near the Eye, that we could see them magnified in any Proportion we pleased. For we estimate the Magnitude of Objects seen with one Eye by the Angle under which they appear: Thus the Object A B (Plate 8. Fig. 10.) appearing under the Angle A E B, its Image takes up the Space a b on the Retina, but the Object C D appearing only under the Angle C E D, its Image takes up only the Space c d on the Retina.

One and the same Object at different Distances from the Retina, will appear under very different Angles. Suppose A B (Fig. 11.) the Object, and the Eye at c, the Angle under which the Object appears, is the Angle A C B, if the same Object be removed to a b, the Angle under which it

appears

appears is the Angle a C b if it be brought to a b, the Angle at the Eye is a C b, so that the Angle will still be greater the nearer the Object comes

to the Eye.

Fig. 14.] Suppose then a small Object AB, which of the ordinary Distance at which the Eye lies, appears under the Angle ACB, which is so very small that the Eye can't perceive the Parts of the Object distinctly; if then the Eye were brought Ten or a Hundred times nearer V.G. to D, and if it could form it felf to fee distinctly at all Distances, it would appear to the Eye under the Angle ADB, Ten or a Hundred times bigger than ACB, and confequently the Object will appear Ten or a Hundred times magnified: But then tho' the Eye consisting of slexible Parts, can change its Figure so as to lie at several Distances, yet this Mutability of Figure consists within certain Limits, and there must be certain Distances in which an Object must be put to be seen distinctly; so that if the Object be put nearer the Eye than this determinate Distance, it can never be feen distinctly, the Image not falling on the Retina, but its Place would either be behind the Retina, if the Rays could go so far before they were

were intercepted, or the Image will be vertical and before the Eye if the Object were nearer than the Focus of Parallel Rays, and consequently it can't

be painted on the Retina.

If there were any solid Bodies swimming in the aqueous Humour, those can never have the Images on the Retina, but their Images will be vertical and before the Eye. This is a Demonstration that the Musca Volitantes can never be produced by Objects swimming in the aqueous Hu-

mour, as Physicians generally imagined.

Plate 8. Fig. 17.] Since then the Object AB may be so near the Eye at D, that it will be without the Limits of distinct Vision; it's plain that it can't be seen magnified to the naked Eye in any given Proportion, which it would be, could the Eye see distinctly at all Distances; but if before the Eye D be put a Lens CE, which consists of Segments of small Spheres, and the Distance of the Objects from the Lens be less than the Focus of the Parallel Rays, the Lens will form the Image of the Object AB at ab; that is, all the Rays which come from the Points A and B will enter the Eye as if they had come from the Points ab, and the Eye will see the Object at ab, at the Distance

pear under the Angle ADB, or aDb, which is the very same that it would have been under to the naked Eye at D. If the Object were placed at the Focus of Parallel Rays, then all the Rays which come from the Point A after Refraction thro' the Lens, would go Parallel and enter the Eye as if they had come from an infinite Distance, so the Eye would see the Point A in the Line A a produced in Infinitum. The same thing is true of the Point B, and the Object would be seen at an infinite Distance under the Angle a DB, which is the very same under which it would be seen by the naked Eye, if it could see it at D distinctly.

Fig. 16. Plate 8.] Suppose an Object AB, which to the Eye at C the ordinary Distance for distinct Vision appears, under the small Angle ACB, if then I would see this Object an Hundred times magnified, I take a small Lens whose Focal Distance for Parallel Rays is an Hundred times less than AC or BC, and put the Lens at G, so that the Distance of the Lens from the Object may be a Hundred times less than the Distance of the Eye at C from the Object: If then I bring my Eye to D to the Lens, I shall see the Object thro' the

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the Lens under the Angle A D B, which is a Hundred times greater than A C B, and the Eye will see the Object thus magnified distinctly, because it sees at a greater Distance from the Eye; for most Mens Eyes are framed to see Objects at a

good Distance from the Eye distinctly.

Fig. 15. Plate 8.] If there were an Object AB and a Lens E, whose Focal Distance is F E, that Object would appear by the Lens under the Angle A E B: If there were a Lens whose Focal Distance is DF, the Angle under which the Object will appear will be ADB, greater than AEB; if there were another Lens at C, whose Focal Distance is CF, the Angle under which the Object would appear thro' this Lens is ACB, which is still greater than ADB. The less then the Focal Distance of Parallel Rays of any Lens is, the more 'twill magnify the Object. And if the Lens be equally convex on both Surfaces, the Focal Distance for Parallel Rays is a Semidiameter's Distance from the Lens; the less then the Semidiameter of the Sphere is, of whose Segment the Lens is made, the more it will magnify the Object; and the whole Art of magnifying Objects by single Microscopes, is to grind Glasses exactly of Portions of

of very small Spheres. Lewenhoeck and Melon pretended to grind Glasses whose Focal Distance not much exceed the hundreth Part of an Inch. I have heard of some that are less, and if they were let fall on Paper, there would be need of another Mi-

croscope to find them with.

To know how much any of these single Microscopes magnify; take a small piece of Paper, suppose 'tis of an Inch Diameter, and paste it on a Wall; then take a Microscope and put any small Object at the Focus of Parallel Rays from it; then recede so far from the Wall, till the Paper on it appears of the same Bigness with the Object seen thro' the Microscope; then consider what Proportion the Distance of your Eye from the Paper on the Wall bears to the Distance of the Object from the Microscope, and in that Proportion the Object will be magnified, or appear greater than it would do were it placed at the same Distance from the Eye with the Paper on the Wall.

We may perform this more easily thus. Take a round piece of Paper of about two or three Inches. Diameter, and dye it black with Ink, then paste it on a Pane of Glass in the Window and recede so far from it, till looking thro' the Microscope with:

one Eye on the Object, and with the other on the Paper, you perceive them both of the same Bigness, or the one exactly to cover the other, the Proportion between the Paper and the Object will be exactly as the Distance of the Object from the Microscope to that of the Eye from the Paper; and consequently when the Object appears of the same bigness with the Paper, it is magnified

in that Proportion.

Tho' most Mens Eyes have such a Flexibility and Changeableness of Figure, that they can't only see Objects at a great Distance, if they appear under any sensible Angle, but also those that are within two or three, or one Foot of their Eye, yet there are several whose Limits of Distance for distinct Objects as to their Vision, are much less. V. G. Some can't see Objects but when they are very near them, or close to their Eye, which being very convex, or the Segment of a small Sphere, will unite the Rays of Objects at a Distance before they come to the Retina. They who have this Fault in their Sight are called Myopes.

On the contrary, there are others whose Eyes are very flat, or Segments of large Spheres, who can't see unless the Objects be at a good Distance from

them,

them, and the Rays which come from one Point to fall into the Eye are quam proxime Parallel—Because old Men have generally their Eyes very flat, so that they can't see but at a Distance; therefore those who are troubled with this Fault, are called Presbyta: Both their Faults of Vision may be helpt by Lens's; for those who are Short-sighted, and can't see any Object but what is very near them, by looking thro' a Concave Lens, will see distinctly Objects, which at the same Distance without the Lens, they could not see but very consu-

fedly.

Plate 8. Fig. 9.] Suppose the Object ABC, and the Eye of a Myopes at E, the Object being without the Limits of distinct Vision, will be seen consusedly by the Eye at E; but if you put in the Concave-Lens at G between the Object and the Eye all the Rays which come from it will enter the Eye as if they had come from a, which is much nearer to the Eye, and within the Limit of distinct Vision; the same may be said of B and C from this Experiment; therefore it's plain that by the help of such a Lens, the Eye of a Myops will see distinctly the Object ABC tho' much less than if it had seen it without the Lens.

A a

Plate

Short-sighted People see more distinctly; so also the Convex-Lens helps off the Sight of a Presbyta; for suppose AB an Object, and the Eye at C, this Object is so near the Eye that it can't be seen distinctly by it. If therefore there be a Concave-Lens put at E, so that the Object may be within the Focus of Parallel Rays, the Eye will see the Object AB at a b, at a farther Distance, and within the Limits of distinct Vision; and it will see the Object take up the Space a b which is greater than AB, and therefore it will see it magnified; whereas an Object seen thro' a Lens sit for a Myops does always appear less.

Double Microscopes are those which consist of 2, 3, or 4 Lens's that are designed to magnisse the

Object.

Plate 9. Fig. 1.] The first sort is made after this manner. C is a Lens of a small Sphere, before which the Object A B is placed at such a Distance, that the Image made by the Lens C may be cast out at a great Distance on the other Side, viz. at a b, so that if a b be 10 or 100 times farther from C than A B is, it will be 10 or 100 times greater than A B. D E is another Lens which

which is larger and put so near the Image ab, that ab will be either in its Focus of parallel Rays, or somewhat nearer; so that the Image of the Image ab, made by the Lens DE, may be cast out at a distance, sit for distinct Vision. Now if the Eye be applied at G, it will see the the Object under the Angle, equal to the Angle Ef D, and consequently magnified, and at a distance sit for distinct Vision.

Plate 9. Fig. 2.] Most of the double Microscopes now in use have three Glasses, and are made thus. C is the Object Glass, which is the Portion of a small Sphere; A B is the Object something farther than the Focus of parallel Rays; so that the Image may be cast out, and fill the Space ab 10 or 100 times greater than AB. DE is another Lens or Segment of a larger Sphere placed at a little distance from a b; to this join the Glass GH, which is the Segment of a Sphere somewhat less than DE: So that the Distance between the Glasses GH and DE, may be less than the Distance of the Focus of parallel Rays of the Glass GH, and that the Rays which come from the Image a b, may pass the two Glasses, and after Refraction enter the Eye at L. So that all those Aa 2 Rays Rays which come from the same Point of the I-mage a b, may enter the Eye as if they had come from an infinite Distance, i.e. the two Glasses GH and DE ought to be so placed, that the Rays which come from any one Point of the Object a b, may after Refraction thro' these two Glasses run parallel, and so form in the Eye a distinct Image; for it is plain, that in this Case the Eye will see the Object much magnified and distinct. By this Microscope the Eye can perceive a greater Portion of the Object than by the former; because the Rays at b and a would fall so obliquely on the Glass DE, that without the third Glass HG, they could not enter the Eye, and consequently without that Glass the Eye will see only the middle Part of the Object.

As Microscopes are used to discover the small Parts of these Bodies we have near us, and put at a due Distance from the Miscroscope: So Telescopes are for discerning Bodies distinctly that are at great Distance from us; so that the Rays which come from any one Point of the Object, and fall on the object Glass of the Telescope, may be conceived as Parallel, and consequently they will unite and form the Image as the Focus of parallel Rays.

Plate

Plate 4. Fig. 15.] The first and most simple Sort of Telescope is the Astronomick, for looking at the Stars. CD represents the object Glass, which is a Portion of a very large Sphere; A E and BE, are two Rays which come from the Extremities of an Object placed at a great Distance, as the Object AB is to be supposed. All the Rays which come from the same Point that A E came from, will after Refraction thro' the Lens meet at a, and all the Rays which come from the same Point of the Object with the Rays B E; will after Refraction meet at the Point b; so that the Image of the Object will be placed at ba, at the Distance of the Focus of parallel Rays, as you may see by the pricked Lines.

Suppose GFH a Lens of a much greater Convexity, or a Segment of a much larger Sphere; placed so near the Image a b, that a b may be in its Focus of parallel Rays, that is to say, all the Rays which come from the Points a and b, may after Refraction run parallel and enter the Eye at L, as if they had come from a great Distance; these Lens's being thus adapted, and put in a Tube, the Eye will see distant Objects distinctly, and magnified in the Proportion that the focal Di-

stance:

stance of the Glass C.D, as greater than the focal Distance of G.H. For first the Eye will see the Object distinctly, because the Rays which come from the Points a b, falling on the Eye at L, as if they had come from a great Distance, will be exactly united in the Retina, and therefore a di-

stinct Image.

than without the Telescope, for the Angle under which the Object is seen without the Telescope, is the Angle A L B, and the Image under the Retina of the Eye is A B; but the Angle under which the Object is seen with the Telescope is the Angle G L H and the Image made then on the Retina is K; and therefore as much as this latter Angle and Image are greater than the former, so much is the Object magnified by the Telescope.

Again, let A and B be two Rays coming from the End of an Object at an infinite Distance, whose Image is a b, the bigness of which is determined by the Angle a E b, which these two Rays make in passing thro' the object Glass, without any Refraction, because they are the Axes of two Pencils of Rays: Let the focal Distance of the object Glass be E K, and that of the Eye-Glass F K,

and

and AEB be the Angle under which the Object is seen without the Telescope. Now because the Image and the Object appear under the same Angle from the Lens, the Angle A E B will be equal to the Angle a E b, and consequently to the Angle under which the Object appears seen without the Telescope; but the Eye at L sees the Image a b under an Angle equal to a F b; and consequently so much greater as the Angle a F b is than a E b, so much greater will the Object appear when seen with the Telescope than when seen without it: But so much as E K is greater than F K, so much is the Angle a F b greater than a E b, i. e. the Object is magnified in proportion to the focal Distance of the object Glass, keeping the same Eye-Glass; and and consequently the longer the focal Distance, i. e. the longer the Space is, of which the Lens is a Portion, the more the Object will be magnified; and therefore the whole Perfection of these Sort of Telescopes, is to get object Glasses well ground of a long focal Distance. There are some of these Telescopes of 150 or 200 Feet in Length, but it is very difficult to manage and turn them as one pleases. It is plain, that the Image a b is inverted

ted in respect of the principal Object, and consequently whatever Objects we look at with these

Telescopes, will appear inverted.

Plate 9. Fig. 4.] 2. Galilaus's-Telescope does likewise consist of two Glasses, whereof the object Glass is Convex, and a Segment of a lesser Sphere. They are fixed in a Tube after this manner. CD is the object Glass, whose Focus of parallel Rays is at a b, i. e. the Images of distant Objects made by the Glass C D are at ab, so that K is the Focus of parallel Rays to the Axis of the Glass; so that if it were not for the interpolition of the Eye-Glass GH, all the Rays parallel to the Axis would converge to the Point K; but then by the interposition of the Concave Eye-Glass GH, which is placed at such a Distance from the Image ab, that the Point K is in its Focus of parallel Rays or vertical Focus, all the Rays which before they passed thro' the Glass GH were converging to the Point K, will after Refraction on the Glass GH, run parallel to the Axis: The same way all the Rays which before the Refraction on the Glass GH, were converging to the Points ab, will after Refraction run Parallel one to another. So that the Eye near F will receive all the Rays which

which were going to ab, as if they had all come from ab placed at a great distance, and the Eye will see the Object under the Angle aFb which is equal to aFb; where it is to be observed that the Image ab is inverted in respect of ab, and ab will be erected and seen the same way that the

principal Object A B is seen.

N. B. The vertical Focus of a Concave Glass is that Point from which the Rays parallel to the Axis diverge, after Refraction thro' the Glass; as the Point C (Plate 7. Fig. 3.) is the vertical Focus of parallel Rays of the Glass E E, because the Rays B D, which come from A, and before they entered the Glass were Parallel to the Axis A E, are by Refraction thro' the said Glass made to diverge from the Point C, as if they had come really from that Point.

Plate 9. Fig. 5.] 3. Because the first Sort of Telescopes shew all Objects inverted, and the second discovers but the small Part of an Object at once; therefore a third Sort has been contrived, consisting of sour Glasses, viz. one large Object Glass and three Eye-Glasses, placed after this manner., C D is the Object-Glass, whose Focus of parallel Rays is at a b: or which is the same B b

thing, let a b be the Image of some distant Object, therefore it will be inverted in respect of the Object. E F is an Eye-Glass, a Segment of a lesser Sphere, placed so near the Image a b, that Rays which come from any one Point of it after Refraction thro' EF, may run parallel, and fall on a third Glass GH; those parallel Rays falling on the Glass GH, will after Refraction converge to the Focus of parallel Rays, and form an Image a b inverted in respect of a b, and consequently erected in respect of the principal Radiant. I K is another Glass placed so near the Image a b, that the Rays coming from any one Point of the Image a b may enter the Eye at L, as they had come from a Point at a great Distance; that is, they will after Refraction at I K run parallel, and then the Eye at L will see the Image distinctly erected and magnified.

OBSERVE, that ab is the common Focus of parallel Rays to the two Glasses C D and EF, and a b is the Focus of parallel Rays to the two Glasses C II and IV

fes GH and IK.

Sir ISAAC NEWTON'S COLOURS.

PROPOSITION.

Lights which differ in Colour, differ also in Degrees of Refrangibility.

EXPERIMENT.

F you apply any flat Side of a Prism to the Hole of a dark Room to receive the Rays which come from the Sun, these Rays which are different in Colour, will

be separated by a different Refraction, and diverge from one another, (as in Fig. 1. Plate 10.) and appears distinctly in an oblong Figure on the opposite Wall: They will be refracted in this Order, viz. The red Rays will be refracted least, the

Bb 2

the Orange somewhat more, the Yellow more than that, the Green yet more, the Blue more than the Green, and the Purple most of all. Now to shew that these Colours were not made by Refraction, but were originally in the Rays of the Sun; if you refract any one of them never so much with a Prism, as for Example, the Purple in the sirst Figure, it will retain the same Colour.

If you contract these refracted Rays with a Burning-Glass, they will all converge to the Focus of parallel Rays, as in the second Figure; where if you receive them on Paper, they will appear White: And to shew farther, that White is a Composition of all these Colours, if you intercept the blue Ray with a Piece of Paper, between the Focus will appear Reddish; if the Reddish be intercepted it will appear Blueish. So that if one of these Colours is wanting, the White is impersect.

Fig. 3. If you receive all the Rays on a Piece of Paper, as at L, Figure 3d. between the Focus of parallel Rays and the Glass, they will appear with their proper Colours in their right Order, and converging towards one another; but if they be received beyond the Focus, they will appear in their

their proper Colours on the Paper, and to have diverged from one another, whence their Order will be inverted, viz. the purple Ray will be in the Place of the Red, and the Red of the Purple.

To shew that the Rays which differ in Colour, tho' they have the same Incidence, are differently refracted, place a tall Piece of Wood with an Hole in it, Fig. 4. and a Pritm behind that Hole at a convenient Distance from the Window; then with it refract the several Rays one after another from the Hole in the dark Room, to the Hole in the Piece of Wood, and each of the Rays will be differently refracted on the opposite Wall. Viz. The Reddish will be least refracted, and uppermost; the Orange next, underneath; the Tellow next, the Green next, the Blue next, and the Purple lowest of all.

Those Objects whose Parts are so disposed, as to reflect any one of these Rays more than the rest, and in a great measure to absorbe and stiffe the others, appear to be of that Colour which they most reslect; whence a blue Ray when refracted on a blue Object, appears much stronger than when it is refracted on one of a different Colour, and so of the rest. If you look thro' a Prism on an Ob-

ject of any one Particular, V. G. Green, you will see it in all the other Colours; but the Green being the most powerful, the Object to the Sight of the naked Eye will appear altogether of that Colour.

Since White has been proved to consist of all Colours; it follows from hence, that those Objects which appear White to us, are such as are disposed very curiously to reflect all Colours, and the greater or less this Disposition is in the Superficies of the Object, it will appear accordingly of a quite White, or else of a somewhat shaded Darkbrown, or some other intermediate Colour; and those Objects which are very little, or not at all disposed to reflect these Rays, will appear Black.

It may be so contrived by darkening a Room, and by that means letting Beams of Light fall very forcibly upon a black Object, that it shall then

appear exactly White to the Eye.

If you expose two Pieces of Marble to the Sun, one White, the other Black, the Black will be hot, and retain the Heat longer; for as the White reflects, so the Black absorbs the Rays of the Sun.

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If an oblong Piece of Paper placed before a Window, be viewed at fuch a Distance thro' a Prism, that the Light from the Window on the Paper may make an Angle, equal to that which is made by it, i. e. the Light reflected from the Paper to the Eye, Provided the Paper be terminated with Sides parallel to the Prisin, and the Horizon, and distinguished by a perpendicular transverse Line into two Halves, the one of an intensely blue Colour, the other intensely Red; If the refracted Angle of the Prism (i.e. its two Sides thro' which the Light passes to the Eye) be turned upwards, so that the Paper may seem to be lifted upwards by the Refraction, its blue Half will, be lifted higher by the Refraction, than its red Half; but if it be turned downwards, so that the Paper may seem to be carried lower by the Refraction, its blue Half will be carried something lower thereby than its red Half; because in both Cases the Light which comes from the blue Half of the Paper thro' the Prism, to the Eye, is more refracted than that which comes from the red Half.

A DESCRIPTION of the Condensing ENGINE with its Apparatus.

P.L. ATE 6.

Fig. 6. Sa Syringe or Syphon for injecting Air into the Vessel aaaa of Fig. 10.

Fig. 9. A Mercurial-Gage made with a Glass Tube cc fixed into a Piece of Wood, to know by the rising of the Mercury in the Vessel aaaa.

by the rising of the Mercury in the Vessel aaaa.

Fig. 7. bbbb represent the Brass Hemespheres; g, a Cock to keep the injected Air from coming out; ee, a hollow Piece of Brass thro' which the Air is injected; dda Brass Plate to shut up the bottom of the Vessel aaaa; a one of the Brass Rings to hang the Weights on to draw the Hemispheres asunder.

Fig. 10. k, the other Brass Ring for the a-bovementioned purpose; a a a a is a Glass Ves-

keep in the Air condensed upon the Hemispheres b b b b within the said Glass f, a Piece of Brass screwed to the upper Hemisphere to sustain it by help of the Pieces e, e, g, hanging upon the Hook k, whilst the Weights in the Scale draw the lower Hemispheres from it, and without letting out the condensed Air. b, b, a Board with two screwed Pillars to fix the upper and lower Brass Plates to the Brass Vessel, d, d, the upper Brass Plate represented in Fig. 8. with the Gollar of Leathers f, f, that the Piece e, e, of Fig. 7. may slip up and down without letting out the Air.

If the Air be exhausted out of the Hemispheres (joined only by a wet Leather) it will require thirty Pounds to draw them asunder; if the Density of the Air in the Vessel a a a a be doubled by the Quantity of injected Air on the outside of the Hemispheres, tho the Air is not drawn out from between them, it will require as much Weight to draw them asunder, as before; and double that Weight if there is a Vacuum between the Hemispheres; or if the Air is three times as dense as at first. And if the Air being three times as dense as at first, there be Vacuum between the

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Hemispheres, it will require three times the Weight, namely three hundred and ninety Pound. to pull them asunder.

A CONTRACT OF THE PROPERTY OF

ADESCRIPTION of ROWLEY'S HORARY, or a Machine to represent the Motion of the Moon about the Earth, and the Earth, Venus and Mercury about the Sun.

HIS Movement represents that Part of the Planetary System, according to Copernicus, which is circumscribed by the Earth's Motion round the Sun, or contain'd within the Orbit that the Earth describes

about the Sun.

The flat Silver Ring which incompasses the whole Work upon the upper Face of the Movement, represents the Plane of the Ecliptic, and is divided into twelve equal Parts, which are the twelve

twelve Signs of the Zodiac; each Part is again subdivided into thirty equal Parts, which are the Degrees of each Sign, there being three hundred and sixty of these in the whole Circumstrence. This Plane of the Ecliptic passes thro' the Sun's Centre, and the Earth's Centre is carried round the Sun in the same Plane; so that no Body can be in a direct Line between the Centres of the Earth and Sun, unless that Body be in the Plane of the Ecliptic, it taking its Name from Eclipses, which never happen but when the Moon is in or near this Plane.

The Places of all the Planets are determined by their Situations in respect to the Signs of the Zodiae, beginning to reckon from Aries, and by their being in or out of the Plane of the Ecliptic; their Distance in Degrees from the beginning of Aries is their Longwoode, and their Distance from the Plane of the Ecliptic, either above or below it, is their Latitude, which is either Northern or Southern, according as the Planet is towards the Northern or Southern Part of the Ecliptic.

Plane passes thro' the Sun's Centre; and since on-

ly the Earth of all the primary Planets moves in the Ecliptic, every one of the other must consequently pass thro' the Plane of the Ecliptic at

two opposite Points call'd Nodes.

The Moon moves in an Orbit, whose Plane passes thro' the Earth's Centre. The two opposite Points where the said Orbit cuts the Plane of the Ecliptic, being the Moon's Nodes, which are represented in the Machine by two Studs; and since the Nodes are always in the Plane of the Ecliptic, if the Moon happen to be in either of them, when they are in a Line with the Sun and Earth, there will be an Eclipse; 'twill be of the Moon, if the Earth is between the Sun and Moon, and of the Sun, if the Moon is between the Sun and Earth.

The Centre of each Planet's Orbit not being in the Sun's Centre, its Distance from it is called the Excentricity; upon this Account the Planets recede from, and approach towards the Sun at different times.

words the Anothing in Southern Mare of the E.

These Deffinitions being premised.

The large gilt Ball in the Centre represents the Sun, which you may observe to turn round upon a fix'd Axis, inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic, in an Angle of about Eighty-two Degrees or eight Degrees distance from a Perpendicular.

The innermost small Ball is the Planet Mercury, which revolves round the Sun in an excentrick Orbit, with a proper Degree of Inclination

to the Plane of the Ecliptic.

The next small Ball is Venus, commonly called the Evening or Morning-Star, which here revolves round in an Orbit of due Inclination and

Excentricity.

The outermost painted Ivory Ball represents the Earth, which revolves round the Sun in its proper Orbit, and at the same time has a swifter Rotation upon a Steel Axis, which Axis always stands inclined to the Plane of the Ecliptic in an Angle of Sixty-six and half Degrees, or Twenty-three Degrees and half from a Perpendicular, and points the same way during the whole Revolution, it being always parallel to one and the same Line;

Line; that is, if a fix'd Star be supposed at an immense Distance, the Earth shall always point to it, what Part soever of its Orbit is in the two Extremities of this Axis, namely where it goes into, and where it comes out of the Globe, represents the two Poles; the upper-most is the North, the opposite the South Pole; the other Ball which accompanies the Earth in its Motion round the Sun, and at the same time revolves round the Earth, represents the Moon, whose Orbit is less than that of the Earth, and has its proper Degree of Inclination.

The Hemisphere of Mercury or Venus, which is turned towards the Sun, is always enlightened, and the opposite Hemisphere dark, which is here represented by the white and black Part of the Balls.

It is to be observed of the Moon, that it turns once round its own Axis, whilst it is carried round the Earth in its own Orbit, which is performed in Twenty-seven Days and eight Hours; and therefore the same Face is always towards the Earth, and it is hereby expressed by the white Part of the Moon which is always towards the Earth in this Machine; but as it is not always enlightened, there is a dark Cap which expresses the shaded

much is enlightened of that Part of the Moon which we see from the Earth; that is, what Phasis or Appearance the Moon has at any time.

Whereby is shewn how far any Part of the Earth moves round in a determinate Number of

Hours.

The Circle on the Moon's Orbit is divided into Twenty-nine Parts and half, which represents the Days of the Moon's Age, that being the Period from New Moon to New Moon. The Number in the small Circle adjoining to the Moon's Orbit, represents the Number of Moons or Lunar-Months.

The Number which appears in a small Hole made on the great gilt Plate shews the Year.

From these Measures of Time you will find the Sun revolves upon his Axis in about 25 Days.

Mercury revolves round the Sun in about 87

Days, 23 Hours.

Venus revolves round the Sun in about 224

Days, and 18 Hours.

The Earth revolves about the Sun in 365 Days 6, Hours, and about its own Axis in 24 Hours.

And

Revolution in her Orbit in labout 18 Years and 224 Days.

All which Motions nearly agree with those in

or Appearance the Moon has at any transperse ofts

SOLA

Time, so as to represent the Situations of the Earth, Sun, and Planets, in respect to each other, and be afterwards set a going, it will then truly represent the Situation of the Planets, with regard to each other for any given Time, past or to come. Only this you must observe, that the Proportion of the Orbs of the Planets, in respect of the Bulks of the Bodies, and the Proportion of their Bulks to each other, could not be performed in so small a Model as this is; but that may in some Measure be remedied by making the sollowing Allowances.

Suppose the Diameter of the Meon's Orb to be sixty Diameters of the Earth, and the Diameter of the Earth's Orb round the Sun 300 times the Diameter of the Moon's Orb, and the Orbs of Venus and Mercury to bear the same Proportion to the Earth's, as they do in this Machine.

ned Turs, and about its own Asis in 24 Fours.

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Then for the Bodies, imagine the Earth to be in Diameter a little more then 3 times and half greater than the Moon, or in Bulk near 51 times. Suppose Venus about as large as our Earth, and Mercury about as large as the Moon.

And Lastly, Suppose the Sun to be near 100 times larger in Diameter than the Earth, that is in Bulk one Million of times larger.



FINIS.

Then for the Bodies, imagine the Earth to be in Diameter a little more then's times and lake greater than the Moon, or in Bulk near Suppore Manuabous as

MVSEVM Salvode (STINAL) times larger in Dia NATINE

NICVM



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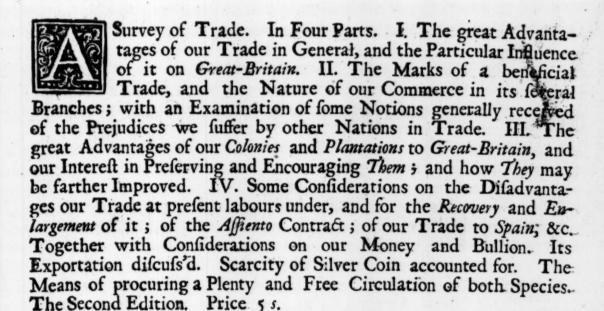
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